# Leadership and Program Operations Training


**April/May 2001**

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

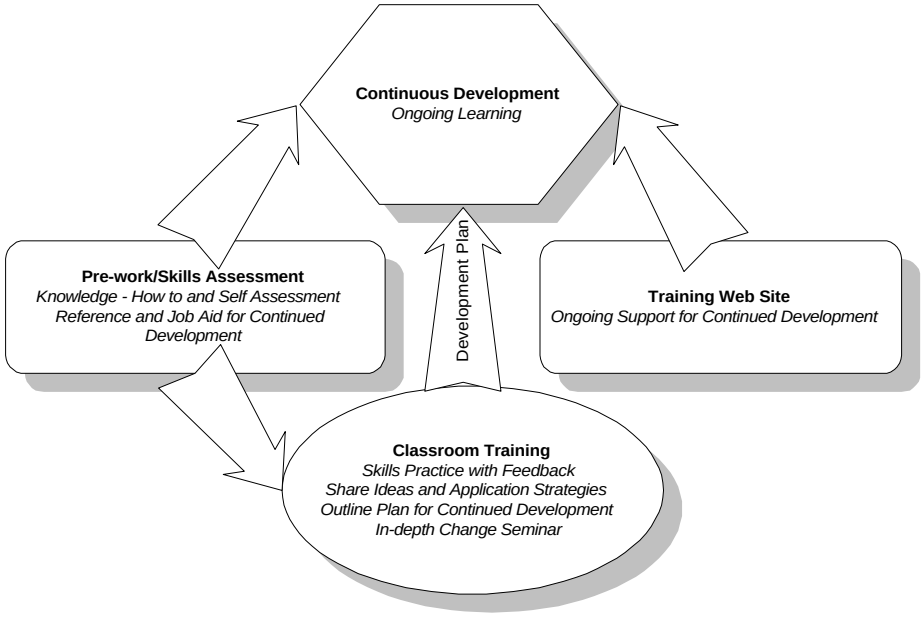

| **Title** | **Page** |
|---|---|
| Introduction | Intro – 1 |
| Unit 1: Leadership Foundations | 1 – 1 |
| Unit 2: Interpersonal Skills and Influencing | 2 – 1 |
| Unit 3: Thinking Strategically | 3 – 1 |
| Unit 4: Business and Program Operations | 4 – 1 |
| Unit 5: Empowerment and Accountability | 5 – 1 |
| Unit 6: Effective Teaming | 6 – 1 |
| Unit 7: Valuing Diversity | 7 – 1 |
| Unit 8: Managing and Leading Change | 8 – 1 |

# PRE-WORK INTRODUCTION UNIT

## Introduction

Welcome to the USAID's Senior Leadership Module. The Senior Leadership Module helps participants develop the leadership skills necessary to lead operating units (e.g., Missions, Divisions, and Offices) towards achieving USAID's mission and goals. The module covers relevant topics from the senior leader's perspective.

The Senior Leadership Module is a long-term program that emphasizes individual continuous learning.




The pre-work study material represents the first phase in that plan. The content in this material provides senior leaders with the prerequisite knowledge needed to contribute and learn effectively during the activities presented in the classroom phase. As such, it is imperative that participants complete the readings in this manual before attending the classroom sessions.

This pre-work manual is divided into nine units. This introductory unit contains sections addressing critical themes within the Senior Leadership Module including skills in learning organizations and USAID's core values. Unit 1 covers fundamental skills common to leadership roles, including vision, situational leadership, mentoring, and giving and eliciting performance feedback. Unit 2 covers interpersonal and influencing skills necessary for effective leadership. Units 3 though 7 cover leadership practices and skills related to strategic thinking, business and program operations, risk management, team building, and valuing and utilizing diversity. Unit 8 provides information on managing and leading organizational as well as personal change.

## Skills for a Learning Organization

In *The Fifth Discipline*, Peter Senge defines learning organizations as "organizations in which people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together." Similarly, other writers emphasize that a learning organization continuously changes itself to meet both long-term and short-term goals through the constant improvement of its people (individually and in teams), its services, its processes, and its products.

Clearly, organizational learning is critical for organizations, such as USAID, where rapid change is a standard feature of operations. It is through continuous learning, therefore, that organizations adapt to change, avoid the repetition of past mistakes, and retain critical knowledge that would otherwise be lost. USAID dedicates considerable resources for individual training and is actively taking steps towards becoming a learning organization that can adapt to changing circumstances easily instead of being incapacitated by bureaucratic structures. As Nancy Dixon notes: "Organizational learning is the outcome of three overlapping spheres of activity — individual, team, and system learning. All three kinds of learning take place simultaneously."

Consequently, most senior leaders regularly apply the "two-job concept" to themselves and to their employees. Besides mastering certain specific job skills, everyone needs to understand how to help the Agency change and continuously grow through shared learning, especially by quickly sharing "front-line" information. By supporting and implementing initiatives directly related to core values and reengineering efforts, senior leaders help to develop USAID as a learning organization. As work groups and teams have more authority to decide how to accomplish tasks, the roles and skills of senior leaders shift away from the traditional ones of managers and controllers to those of team leaders, facilitators, mentors, and information sharers.

The Senior Leadership Module helps Agency leaders to renew and enhance and their skills by applying those leadership skills most closely related to developing USAID as a learning organization.

## Characteristics of Learning Organizations

<u>Team Learning</u>

While individual learning is essential, the most important organizational decisions usually occur in groups. The learning units of organizations are groups of people who need one another to act. Learning situations based on ongoing work groups have a powerful advantage over those involving individual learners. In addition, group learning becomes most critical when the content involves subjects such as teamwork, problem solving, or strategic planning.

Shared Vision

Shared vision involves the skills of developing shared "pictures of the future" that foster genuine commitment and enthusiasm rather than mere compliance.

Mental Models

According to Senge, mental models are deeply held internal images of how the world works that have a powerful influence on what we do because they directly affect what we see and feel. Such models represent a person's view of the world, including explicit and implicit understandings. As a practical matter, a senior leader's consciously advocated and automatically assumed mental models need to be in alignment with actual workplace realities.

Personal Mastery

Personal mastery is the continuous striving of individuals to see reality objectively through focusing efforts and energy and deepening personal visions through discipline and patience.

Systems Thinking

A systems thinking approach is the cornerstone of how learning organizations think about their world. Therefore, senior leaders must use a systems thinking approach to solving problems. Senge outlines several principles of systems thinking as follows:

1. *Today's problems come from yesterday's "solutions."* Problems that are evident today often result from actions taken to solve earlier problems.
2. *The harder you push, the harder the system pushes back.* When initial attempts to produce improvements fail, "pushing harder" can stop leaders from seeing that their usual efforts may be the main obstacles to change.
3. *Behavior grows better before it grows worse.* A short-term benefit often masks a long-term disadvantage. Therefore, leaders must carefully monitor the long-term consequences of any solution.
4. *The easy out usually leads back in.* Leaders often use familiar, though often ineffective, solutions to problems when real solutions are not obvious.
5. *The cure can be worse than the disease.* Sometimes the easy or familiar solution is worse than doing nothing at all.
6. *Faster is slower.* The optimal rate for implementing solutions is usually far less than the fastest possible rate.
7. *Cause and effect are not closely related in time and space.* Leaders need to carefully study problems and solutions to understand causal links and not leap to implementation.
8. *Small changes can produce big results — but the areas of highest leverage are often the least obvious.* Small, well-focused actions can sometimes produce significant, enduring improvements, if they are in the right place at the right time.

9. *You can have your cake and eat it too — but not at once.* Many choices that appear to be "either-or" turn out not to be so when leaders use a systems thinking approach and focus on long-term results.
10. *Dividing an elephant in half does not produce two small elephants.* Leaders sometimes must focus on a problem at a higher level, which may require searching across organizational units or functional areas, rather than focusing only on the part of the problem that directly affects them.

USAID can only operate as a learning organization when senior leaders place functional value on organizational and staff development using a systems approach. For example, senior leaders need to develop plans for employing the learning organization model in their operating units to achieve improved productivity and results. By identifying resources outside of traditional "training" that employees can access to move beyond basic job skills, senior leaders can help enhance everyone's performance. Trained employees in a learning organization cope with job-related stress better, relate to change with fewer problems, and help move USAID toward its organizational goals more efficiently. Senior leaders should continuously remind their employees they need to work together as resources to be tapped for the improvement of each other through mentoring and sharing expertise and skills. In addition, senior leaders should encourage all staff to take advantage of and contribute to USAID's learning organization model.

**USAID Core Values**

Core values are essential and enduring tenets of an organization — the guiding principles that have intrinsic value to those in the organization. They define an organization and what it stands for. Most American companies tend to publish core values at or soon after their founding. However, USAID only began to fully articulate its core values (and put them in writing) a few years ago. Therefore, senior leaders need to constantly relate and define all employee efforts and responsibilities in terms of the core values: Managing for Results, Customer Focus, Teamwork, Empowerment and Accountability, and Valuing Diversity. Core values are important not because of moral or ethical principles, but because they directly support the mission of the Agency. Naturally, leadership by example is the most powerful mechanism for transference of the core values to other employees.

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# UNIT 1: LEADERSHIP FOUNDATIONS
# "FROM MANAGING TO LEADING"

## LESSON 1
## Vision: "Making Dreams a Reality"

"Vision without action is a daydream. Action without vision is a nightmare."
-Japanese Proverb

**Vision** can be thought of as a picture of what the future should look like. Vision is the big picture of what one wants to accomplish. For some, "purpose" can be another way of thinking of vision. Vision is simply a clear sense of purpose. It functions to clarify direction, motivates and inspires, and coordinates and unifies actions. More than ever, organizations need to have a clear sense of purpose or they will not survive. They need to adapt, transform, and renew to stay competitive in today's marketplace. Having a vision that motivates, unifies, and clarifies is critical for maintaining an edge.

Closely related to vision are values. **Values** are guiding principles that determine what is important. They affect how one acts, which decisions one makes, which goals one wants to accomplish, and what one's purpose is. Values in an organization also function as operational guidelines — they let people know what is expected of them.

When communicating a vision to employees, it should be a "shared" vision. People must have an interest in the vision and must feel a sense of ownership in making the vision a reality. Today's movement toward self-directed teams makes it very important for employees to share the organization's vision. These teams have the freedom and autonomy to create their own goals. If the vision is shared, they will create goals within the framework of the larger organizational vision. If the vision is not shared, teams might create goals that do not lead to the achievement of the organization's vision.

It is therefore critical for leaders to clearly communicate their organizational vision to employees. Successful leaders are people who know where they want to go, why they need to get there, and how to get there effectively.

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## LESSON 2
## Leadership: "An Integrated and Holistic Approach"

### A Leader's Growth — Pyramid or Plateau?

> **Leadership:** "influencing other people toward the achievement of shared results" (*The West Point Way of Leadership*, Donnithorne, p.7)

Why is it that some people plateau while others continue growing as lifelong learners? Some leaders reach a plateau and then seem to stop growing, while others deal with the barriers, continue growing, and become lifelong learners.

Three primary aspects directly affect a person's learning:

1. **Ability** — what one is able to do (natural and acquired)
2. **Aptitude —** what one is capable of learning
3. **Attitude —** what mental and emotional disposition one brings to a job/task

The difference between leaders who plateau and those who go on to become lifelong learners usually has nothing to do with ability and aptitude; it is their attitude that makes the difference. Diagram 1 illustrates that people build upon a foundation that is the core of their temperament and personality. Development is a series of acquired skills, abilities, attitudes, and experiences. The plateau to growth is mostly internal and is usually caused by excuses about our shortcomings that limit further development. When confronted with our weaknesses and the need for further growth, many people tend to react with the expression: "That's just who I am." Too many people fail to distinguish between self-acceptance and a healthy self-evaluation that acknowledges room for growth and change; they therefore "get stuck" and do not move beyond the self-imposed barriers.

Continued development is a willingness to change and grow beyond the normal limitations. Becoming lifelong learners involves continually processing information about ourselves, continually acquiring and improving skills, and continually improving areas of weakness.

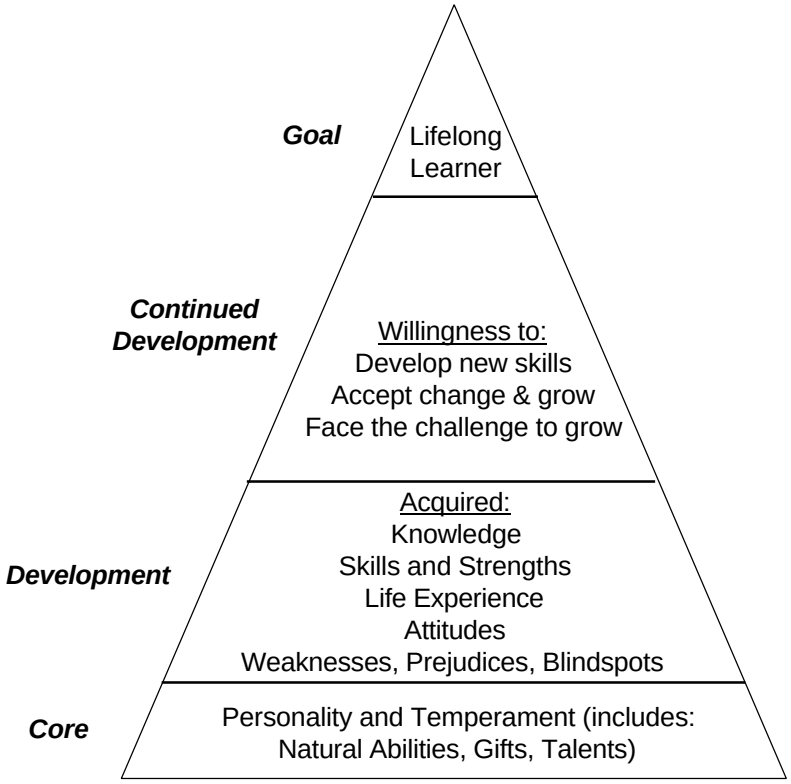


**Diagram 1**
**Growth: Pyramid or Plateau?**

## Aspects of Leadership: An Integrated and Holistic Approach

Stephen Covey distinguishes the difference between the *Character Ethic* and the *Personality Ethic* for leaders and leadership. He notes that there was a shift in the emphasis on success in leadership from character to personality. The character ethic emphasizes things like integrity, humility, justice, patience, and industry. With the current emphasis on the personality ethic, success is seen more as a function of personality, public image, skills and techniques, and charisma. Covey encourages a return to emphasizing the character ethic because of its emphasis on values.

Though skills and techniques are important in leadership development, there is an overall need for an integrated and holistic approach to leadership development — one that takes into consideration the totality of a leader's person. The intent of Diagram 2 is to categorize the aspects of leadership in an integrated and holistic model. Integrated, in this context, means seeing the relationships of the various parts of personality, skills, and disciplines. Holistic means seeing the individual as a complete and whole person. Rather than just seeking to grow in select areas, holistic development leads to well-rounded leaders.

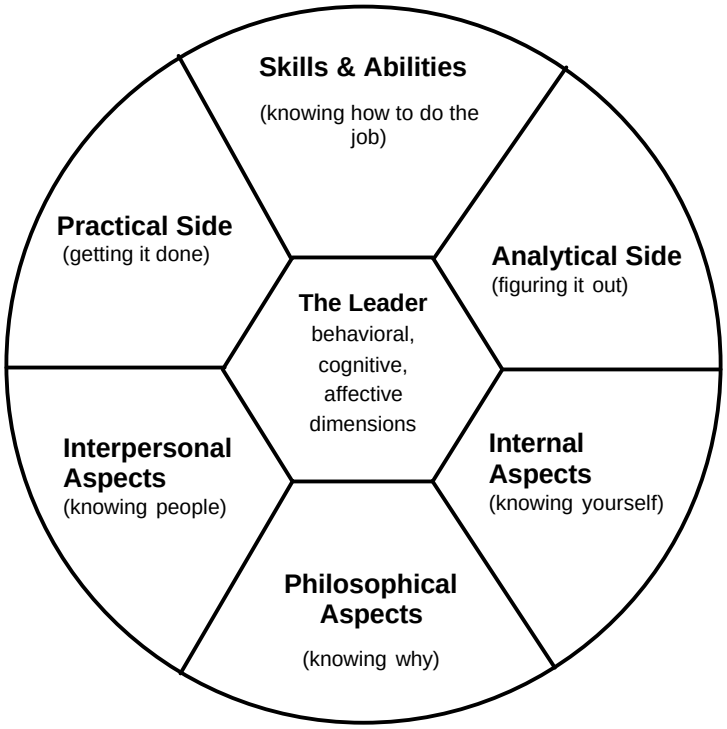


**Diagram 2**
**Aspects of Leadership: An Integrated and Holistic Approach**

Center of Diagram: For leadership development to be integrated and holistic, it needs to encompass the cognitive, behavioral, and affective domains. Too often, leadership development focuses only on cognition or behavior.

Behavioral — what people do, how they behave

Cognitive — the thinking, mental, and knowledge aspects

Affective — the emotional, psychological, and personal aspects

The Integrated and Holistic Approach to Leadership and the Six Aspects necessarily deal with the types of enduring character values (such as moral standards, benefits, and personal and religious convictions) that determine the character of the leader.

Six Aspects of Leadership: The following six aspects create an organizing framework in which to categorize the multifaceted aspects of leadership.

- Skills and Abilities **—** Knowing how to do one's job.
- Practical Side — Getting the job done. Some people may be very capable but seem to lack the ability to be effective and get the job done; with help, these people can change. Sometimes it is learning how to work smarter, use time better, etc.
- Analytical Side — Figuring it out. The real value in analytical strengths is not over analyzing, but in being perceptive and truly understanding the real issues involved. Real analysis produces wisdom.

- Interpersonal Aspects — Knowing how to get along and work with and through people.
- Internal Aspects — Knowing yourself; having self-awareness and understanding. It is a leader's personal guiding principles (whether conscious or not) that determine character. Personal guiding principles are a set of operating principles that form values, convictions, beliefs, and moral standards.
- Philosophical Aspects — Knowing and understanding why things are done a certain way or work a certain way; understanding and being able to articulate how things are connected, how systems work, etc. Philosophical aspects have to do with being able to see and understand the bigger picture. They articulate how and why such things as vision, values, and convictions are so important to organizations and systems.

In order to be a lifelong learner and excel in leadership, leaders need to have a holistic approach to personal growth that allows them to welcome growth and learning in a variety of areas. Leadership should be viewed not simply as a position or a role, but as a personal challenge and pursuit of excellence. Lifelong learners have a willingness to go beyond personal barriers and plateaus to maximize their growth potential.

**References/Suggested Reading:**

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## LESSON 3
## Leadership Style and Personality: "Making It Personal"

There is no "one best way" to lead. Effective leaders analyze the factors pertaining to the situation, task, followers, and the organization, and then choose the appropriate leadership style. If the abilities and motives of employees are greatly varied, the senior leader must have the sensitivity and diagnostic ability to sense and appreciate the differences. In other words, senior leaders must be able to identify cues in their environment. Even with good diagnostic skills, leaders may still not be effective unless they can adapt their leadership style to meet the demands of the situation.

### Leadership Roles and Styles

**Roles** refers to the variety of types of leadership tasks and roles a leader performs. A leader may play different roles and functions depending upon the specific relationship to a particular group. For one group (or task), a leader may play the role of advisor. For another, the same leader may play the role of project manager. For each role, the leader needs to understand the boundaries and responsibilities that are particular to each task. Understanding the particulars of each role in the various situations helps leaders contribute to the success of projects and helps them to avoid overstepping boundaries. For example, when tasked to perform an advisor's role for a particular effort, it is best not to "take over" someone else's role and assume the job of project manager.

**Styles** refers to the particular way in which leaders carry out responsibilities and relate to employees. Numerous efforts have been made to categorize and classify styles. Many of the tools and schemes developed have identified the same characteristics. The following summarizes the styles in generalized terminology.

The first two styles (visionary and charismatic) are primarily a function of a leader's presence and force of personality. They are not strictly styles because most people cannot just decide to step into or adopt this style. They are something that someone has or develops over time.

Styles tend to be defined based upon where people fall along several continuums: level of control versus democracy, people versus task/performance, and ruling versus teamwork. Each style has its inherent strengths and weaknesses or limitations.

> Visionary — The visionary leader is one who motivates and influences by strength of vision and leadership command. The visionary leader is someone that people follow regardless of perceived personality weaknesses.
>
> Charismatic — Charismatic leadership is based upon a leader's strong charismatic personality, which has a way of influencing and swaying people by its mere presence. The charismatic leader's persuasive personality usually gets results when and where others cannot.

Participatory — This style is the most democratic. This leader seeks maximum participation from all team members, values members' input, and easily shares control.

Authoritarian/Autocratic — This style tends more toward keeping control. The authoritarian expects people to follow orders and directives and is not concerned about hearing all sides of an issue. This leader appears more concerned about performance than people. This style is more comfortable with a clear chain-of-command organizational chart.

Laissez-faire — This leader is more "hands off" and expects people to go off and do their jobs, but expects to be informed when there is a problem that someone cannot handle. The laissez-faire leader avoids the details of someone else's job, but gets involved as needed, when asked.

Involved — This leader is more hands on and involved in the process. He or she wants to know what is happening along the way and is interested in the details. However, this leader can tend to micro-manage staff.

Human-relations oriented — This style is similar to the participatory and involved styles but tends to be more people oriented — attuned to the people, their needs and human condition. The human-relations oriented leader tends to lead through relationships. This style is characterized by concern for people over performance.

Depending upon the type of task at hand, a leader's style optimally adjusts to meet the need. For instance, leading a team of people in an emergency, where decisions and reaction time are critical, is not the time to worry about involving everyone in a decision nor worry about whose feelings may be hurt. Likewise, a laissez-faire approach is inappropriate when leading an inexperienced team through a labor-intensive procedure.

## Choosing an Appropriate Leadership Style (Situational Leadership II)

The concept of Situational Leadership evolved as a practical model to help leaders be more effective in daily interactions with others. The original Situational Leadership model, developed by Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard (1969), describes the interrelationship among the amount of direction a leader provides, the amount of socio-emotional support a leader gives, and the level of employee readiness/maturity (i.e., the combination of job maturity, psychological maturity, and willingness of the employee to accept responsibility). Blanchard's Situational Leadership II updates the four previous Situational Leadership styles (telling, selling, participating, and delegating) with leadership competencies labeled Directing, Coaching, Supporting, and Delegating.

Situational Leadership II Styles

- Directing: Style 1 — *High Directive Behavior and Low Supportive Behavior*. The leader gives explicit and often detailed instructions about tasks, roles, goals, and deadlines to employees. Closely monitoring the employee's progress and performance, the leader is ready to intervene and correct behavior almost immediately. Leaders use this style for employees who have a low development level, giving high direction and addressing the task knowledge that the employee needs. Because the employee is eager to work and learn, the leader does not need to give support.
- Coaching: Style 2 — *High Directive Behavior and High Supportive Behavior*. The leader not only explains tasks, goals, and decisions — but solicits employee input, praising performance progressively (toward ideal behaviors). The coaching style is best for employees at the low to moderate development level, who may experience a drop in their commitment to their work assignments — because the work itself is very difficult or unusually demanding. By giving detailed directions about tasks and continuously reviewing work, the leader helps employees build competence; by responding positively to employees' suggestions and concerns, the leader supports and motivates the employees' "above-and-beyond" efforts. Though the leader makes all final decisions, the employee's efforts are an acknowledged part of the process.
- Supporting: Style 3 — *Low Directive Behavior and High Supportive Behavior*. The Supporting style works best with moderate to high development employees who have shaky confidence or problems with motivation. While giving little task direction, the leader encourages, listens to suggestions, and facilitates independent decision making and problem solving.
- Delegating: Style 4 — *Low Directive Behavior and Low Supportive Behavior*. Highly competent and highly committed employees need little direction and little support. They can work virtually independently of the leader. The leader just needs to empower the employee to get the job done by supplying whatever resources the employee needs.

Whichever of the four leadership styles a leader uses, the leader needs to:

- Clearly identify the desired outcomes and goals
- Observe and monitor employee performance
- Give feedback to each employee.

Situational Leadership II assists the leader to apply proper leadership behavior in accordance with the follower's development level. When the level of competence for a task is low, the leader must apply a great deal of directive behavior. As the follower becomes more competent, the amount of directive behavior needs to decrease. Similarly, when commitment for a task is low (e.g., a discouraged team), the leader or another team member needs to provide a great deal of supportive behavior. As the team's commitment for the task increases, the need for support decreases.

Intervening Variables

Intervening variables are situational variables beyond employee development level that influence the style of leadership that the leader adopts. Aspects of the situation influence the level of each intervening variable independently of anything done by the leader. Two of the most common intervening variables that influence the style leaders adopt are reward systems and the intrinsically motivating properties of the work itself.

Employee commitment is greater if the organization has a reward system that provides attractive rewards contingent upon performance. An employee's intrinsic motivation is likely to be higher if the work requires varied skills, is interesting and challenging, and provides automatic feedback about performance.

Following are common deficiencies in intervening variables and recommended senior leader actions for addressing these deficiencies:

*Employees are apathetic or have low motivation levels towards the work*

- Set challenging goals and express confidence employees can attain them
- Articulate an appealing vision of what the employee(s) could accomplish
- Lead by example
- Use job enrichment
- Provide recognition
- Reward effective behavior

*Employees are confused about what to do or how to do their work*

- Make clear assignments
- Set specific goals and provide feedback about performance
- Provide more direction of on-going activities
- Provide instruction or coaching as needed
- Identify skill deficiencies and arrange for necessary skill training

*Group or team is experiencing conflict or disorganization*

- Identify and correct coordination problems
- Consult with employees to improve work procedures
- Provide more decisive direction of on-going activities in a crisis

## Leadership and Personality: The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

Used correctly, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) can be an important leadership tool for leading staff and building teams. Not only can leaders more precisely determine their own strengths and weaknesses, but they can pinpoint the natural talents and personality orientations of their team members and staff. Because this typology bases itself on peoples' functional preferences, it naturally promotes USAID's core value of valuing diversity.

### How the MBTI Works

The MBTI is a simple, forced-choice questionnaire (respondents pick one of two choices for each question) that determines people's preferences along four personality dimensions (**I**ntroversion-**E**xtraversion, **S**ensing-i**N**tution, **T**hinking-**F**eeling, and **J**udging-**P**erceiving). Tallying the responses yields one of 16 type combinations, using the first letter of each function (except for intuition, which uses the second letter). For example, a respondent who picks mainly **E** (extraverted) responses, **S** (sensing) responses, **F** (feeling) responses, and **P** (perceiving) responses has an **ESFP** type. Each type combination has some traits or characteristics in common with types containing some of the same type letters (e.g., an ESFP has traits in common with an ESFJ and an ESTJ) and some unique characteristics.

The first step for understanding psychological type is to take the MBTI. Once leaders understand their own functional preferences, relating to other types usually becomes easier. The most positive result of understanding the psychological typology is the application of type to everyday leadership situations — why employees work better on some assignments than others, why some employees work so well (or badly) together, why leaders have difficulty valuing inputs from some employees but not from others. The implications for motivating staff, mentoring, team building, and leadership are quite significant.

### **I**ntroversion and **E**xtraversion

Most people are very familiar with psychologist Carl Jung's notion of introversion-extraversion, which has become a standard scale on several psychological tests. Clearly, people tend to exhibit either an introverted (reserved, quiet) or extraverted (friendly, outgoing) orientation. However most introverts can act extraverted and most extraverts can be introverted, when necessary. Fundamentally, introverts seem to gain energy or "recharge their cells" through quiet reflection or time spent in primarily solitary activities. Continuous contact with people or the outside world usually "wears out" introverts — and they need time alone to replenish their energy.

Extraverts are the opposite. Being with people, moving around, and doing things in the outside world refreshes extraverts and provides them with abundant energy. Quiet and reflective time can drain the energy resources of extraverts (any sort of "solitary confinement" is often pure horror for an extravert). Visiting with friends, meeting with

the workgroup, or "going out" is usually the quickest way to get extraverts "on their feet again."

Jung identified two other dimensions that deal with people's functional (or personality) preferences: sensation-intuition and thinking-feeling. These functional preferences each tend to differentiate people's orientation even more than introversion-extraversion.

**S**ensation and i**N**tuition

Sensation provides information about the outside world and about bodily states that everyone relies on. Intuition utilizes people's unique pattern recognition abilities, providing information about how things, events, or processes connect or fit together into a "big picture." Everyone processes such information using both perceptual approaches all the time. However, some people tend to rely more on sensation for their information inputs — details and perceptual facts — than on intuition. Others tend to overlook the present facts and seek meaning in the overall picture — the overall pattern that subsumes details. Sensation-oriented people pay close attention to facts and figures and are usually good with details of any kind — but may not use their imaginations enough to project trends into the future. Intuition-oriented people, on the other hand, are usually quite imaginative and can be more attuned to future possibilities than to the present, sometimes accurately predicting momentous events. However, they may miss obvious facts and details.

**T**hinking and **F**eeling

Giving meaning to facts and overall patterns is the job of the thinking and feeling functions. Thinking, in this context, is an objective process used to evaluate the logic, fairness, and appropriateness of information. Though everyone uses the thinking function, those with the thinking orientation tend to rely upon an analytical process to the exclusion of the feeling function. Again, everyone uses feeling, likes and dislikes and personal reactions to judge whether something (or someone) is good or bad. However, those with the feeling orientation tend to use feeling almost to the exclusion of thinking. In fact, thinking types and feeling types can be quite opposed to each other because they often deliberately exclude the other function in their evaluations. Thinking types want to use logic, rules and principles, and absolute equality in judging people, things, and events — without the "contamination" of personal feeling or how people are affected. Feeling types want to use their own feelings as a measure of the situation; they care deeply and personally about how people and individuals may be affected and want to promote a harmony that serves everyone well. Making allowances for individual differences is more important to feeling types than abstract imposition of rules or principles. Real world problems, however, rarely yield to pure logic or solely to concerns about people. Therefore, in a thinking-feeling dispute (where both sides are usually partially right) both sides tend to become self-righteous, making reconciliation almost impossible.

**J**udging and **P**erceiving

With the functional pair of judging and perceiving, the MBTI diverges from Jung's typology, which did not explicitly include the judging-perceiving dimension as part of psychological type. The judging-perceiving dimension describes a person's fundamental orientation toward life, work, and time. Though everyone can plan and meet deadlines or remain open to new ideas and possibilities, people usually have a preference for closure or openness. Judging types tend to structure time and to promote closure — everything is subject to planning and decision. Perceiving types seek new opportunities, look for last-minute changes, and try to keep their options open for as long as possible. While the judging types find satisfaction in getting a job completed ahead of time, perceiving types want to gather more information and are excited by new experiences and possibilities. Judging types may prematurely "rush to judgment," while perceiving types may procrastinate past a deadline. Anything that requires meeting deadlines, running on time, or long-term strategic planning should involve people with a judging orientation. Those with the perceiving function preference most effectively handle last-minute crisis management and activities that require improvisation to meet unexpected challenges.

Valuing Diverse "Types"

Of course, understanding psychological type does not automatically promote valuing diversity — though valuing diversity is a natural outcome of applying psychological type to work situations. Leaders, in particular, must keep in mind the positive qualities of opposite functional preferences. For example, leaders with a strong **E** (extraverted) attitude must appreciate the quiet and thoughtful attitude of those with the **I** (introverted) preference — and not assume "there's something wrong with those people."

The following tables provide some examples of the ways that opposite functional types complement each other:

| Extraverts Need Introverts To: | Introverts Need Extraverts To: |
|---|---|
| Listen carefully to individuals | Greet people and make many new contacts |
| Consider consequences before acting | Experiment with new ways of doing things |
| Consider overlooked internal resources | Consider outside ideas and resources |
| Concentrate on one problem at a time | Deal with many tasks simultaneously |
| Focus on idea content rather than just form | Focus on form and presentation |

| Intuition Types Need Sensation Types To: | Sensation Types Need Intuition Types To: |
|---|---|
| Give the important facts | Give various possibilities |
| Apply past experience to problem solving | Apply ingenuity to problem solving |
| Study the fine print in any contracts | Enthusiastically attack new challenges |
| Concentrate on the here and now | Detect future trends and coming changes |
| Keep track of details, facts and figures | Plan for the future |

| Feeling Types Need Thinking Types To: | Thinking Types Need Feeling Types To: |
|---|---|
| Analyze situations, issues, and problems | Forecast how people will feel |
| Stand firm against opposition | Reconcile differences |
| Organize and structure work and projects | Promote and persuade and advertise causes |
| Consistently apply rules and regulations | Teach and arouse enthusiasm |
| Detect flaws in plans | Value the ideas thinkers have |

| Judging Types Need Perceiving Types To: | Perceiving Types Need Judging Types To: |
|---|---|
| Keep options open for new possibilities | Reach decisions quickly |
| Add spontaneity and fun to operations | Schedule and structure work |
| Deal with last-minute changes | Do long-range planning |
| Stop inappropriate implementation | Follow through with plans |
| Find ways to catch up when behind | Meet deadlines |

**Temperaments**

To allow for a more practical and simplified use of the 16 MBTI types, some theorists have grouped the types into four basic orientations called temperaments as follows:

**SP** — Trouble-shooter (Artisan, Dionysian, or Concrete Pragmatist)
**SJ** — Traditionalist (Guardian, Epimethean, or Concrete Cooperator)
**NF** — Catalyst (Idealist, Apollonian, or Abstract Cooperator)
**NT** — Visionary (Rational, Promethean, or Abstract Pragmatist)

Leaders who understand their own temperament types, and the temperaments of their subordinates, can more easily motivate the people they work with every day. Leaders may also more readily determine why some teams are unsuccessful and what inputs from other temperament types may be necessary for team development and increased productivity. Instead of wondering "what's wrong" with a staff or team member (e.g.,

"Why can't that person be more like me?"), a leader can concentrate on using a member's temperament and skills to help strengthen the whole team.

SP Temperament

SPs (ISTP, ISFP, ESTP, ESFP) are usually the most artistic, adaptable, and athletic of all the types — generally good-natured, good with tools, and oriented to the here and now, not to the theoretical. About 35 percent of the U.S. population, SPs approach life tactically, as an adventure. SP leaders especially show their genius during crises, willing to try anything practical to solve a problem. They may even create problems just so that they can experience the excitement of solving them. Above all, SPs value freedom, performance, and spontaneity. SP types include such brilliant tactical leaders as Winston Churchill, George Patton, Erwin Rommel, Robert E. Lee, and Lee Iacocca — and Presidents Kennedy, Johnson, and Theodore and Franklin D. Roosevelt.

SJ Temperament

SJs (ISTJ, ISFJ, ESTJ, ESFJ) are almost always sensible, hard-working, dependable, and conservative. They are detailed and thorough and meet the visible needs of friends, family, and organizations. About 38 percent of the U.S. population, SJs help stabilize and maintain institutions and organizations — and make sure that procedures are followed. As leaders, SJs concentrate on logistics, and the acquisition and distribution of services, resources, and personnel. They are masterful administrators of systems requiring organization and precision. SJ leaders accomplish what needs to get done today, but may neglect tomorrow's tasks. Above all, SJs value duty, cooperation, and security. SJ leaders include business leaders such as Henry Ford, J.P. Morgan, John D. Rockefeller, and J. Paul Getty — and Presidents Washington, Coolidge, and Truman — and comic Joan Rivers.

NF Temperament

NFs (INFJ, INFP, ENFP, ENFJ) are creative, sympathetic, and persuasive — usually the most enthusiastic, humane, and linguistically fluent of all the types. About 12 percent of the U.S. population, NFs promote ideals and serve causes to improve humanity — and may personalize their efforts too much, or take on too many burdens. As leaders, NFs have an uncanny ability to inspire very high performance in others, and as mentors they have no parallel — though they sometimes optimistically entrust subordinates with tasks beyond the subordinates' capabilities. Above all, NFs value harmony, imagination, and personal relationships. NF leaders include Ghandi, Martin Luther King, Jr., Menachem Begin, Anwar Sadat, Will Rogers — and Presidents Carter and Reagan.

NT Temperament

NTs (INTJ, INTP, ENTP, ENTJ) are logical, research oriented, exacting, and ingenious — usually the most theoretical and scientific of the types, constantly looking for new problems to solve. About 12 percent of the population, NTs challenge various authorities

with new analyses in relentless pursuit of improvement, believing that almost anything can be re-invented and reengineered for the better. As leaders, NTs are outstanding strategic planners, often conceptually living in their visions of the future. However, they can lose themselves so much in the details of contingency planning that they neglect day-to-day operations. Above all, NTs value ingenuity, autonomy, and the power of knowledge. NT leaders include W.C. Durant (founder of General Motors), Generals George Marshall and Douglas MacAuthur, Thomas Edison, Albert Einstein and Presidents Jefferson and Nixon.

(Please note that the temperament types of the historical figures cited above are theorists' determinations and not based on actual MBTI results.)

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## LESSON 4
## Mentoring: "Investing In Others"

Mentoring and coaching are two valuable processes that successful and experienced leaders may employ to assist individuals in establishing goals, developing career expertise, and maturing as professionals. Historically, mentoring is a revived and modified version of apprenticeship programs. It is a valuable method for experienced leaders to pass what they have learned to less-experienced protégés.

Mentors provide a role model, an experienced perspective, guidance in career navigation, a sounding board for ideas and decisions, and a coach to provide feedback and constructive criticism in a safe environment. Mentees, in turn, provide ideas from a fresh viewpoint and an opportunity for mentors to build skills for identifying and developing talented employees.

Mentoring occurs in a variety of formats; the relationship can be formal or informal. Mentoring relationships are further broken down into mentor- or mentee-driven. The degree of personal commitment and duration of these relationships varies greatly.

### Formal versus Informal Mentoring

Formal mentoring occurs when there is a pre-arranged relationship established between a mentor and mentee. Goals, structure, scheduled meetings, and a beginning and end date formalize the relationship. Formal mentoring includes clear communication from both sides regarding expectations and content. Informal mentoring is less structured. Informal mentoring is the natural interchange in a working relationship between a more-experienced person and a less-experienced employee.

### Mentor- versus Mentee-Driven Mentoring

<u>Mentor-Driven</u>

A mentor-driven relationship is one in which the mentor takes the lead in outlining the content and expectations of the relationship. In mentor-driven relationships, the mentor chooses and approaches the individual about entering a mentoring relationship. In these cases, mentoring is most effective when the mentor clearly establishes boundaries and expectations, has support from top officials, and identifies specific goals and time frames. In other cases, even if the mentee initially approached the mentor, it still can be a mentor-driven relationship. Having a pre-determined length for the mentoring relationship, with a starting and ending date, allows for continuing or tactfully ending the arrangement. A formal ending allows the mentee to move on to other mentors, prevents the mentor from "burning out" with the mentee, and teaches the mentee the value and protocol of development experiences.

Some ideas for facilitating the end of a mentoring relationship are:

- Discuss expectations and the length of the relationship at the start of the association.
- Help the mentee set specific objectives to achieve and identify measures for evaluating progress.
- Plan a closure event to celebrate the relationship and the experiences shared.
- List several positive observations about the mentee's progress and share them with the individual.
- Help the mentee identify future mentors and future objectives to be met.
- Discuss expectations for future contact.

Mentee-Driven

Sometimes a mentee initiates the relationship with a mentor and takes the lead in establishing goals and needs. Mentee-driven mentoring is a relationship in which the mentee directs the action (scheduling meetings, determining amount of contact, and choosing the content).

Mentee-driven relationships can be rather inconspicuous. In other words, an individual can learn and receive mentoring-like information without the mentor choosing to participate in a formal mentoring relationship. This usually takes place in those work situations where a younger employee builds a rapport with a more experienced co-worker. The mentee gleans information through the daily course of questions, challenges, and issues that naturally arise. In mentee-driven mentoring, there may also be multiple mentors; thus, the mentee receives information and experience from several sources.

## Mentee Groups

Mentoring is not always a one-to-one relationship. Mentors often establish small groups (three to five people) to reach more employees. Groups can be a beneficial format for the mentee who benefits not only from the mentor, but also from the exchange of ideas and interaction with peers. Mentoring groups allow the mentor to share the same information with several individuals at once, and then build relationships for more specific, one-on-one attention with each member.

## Serving as a Learning Broker

Sometimes mentees only need direction toward information or a "sounding board" for problems and ideas. Serving as a learning broker means directing another person toward helpful resources. The learning broker's role may simply involve suggesting workshops, courses, or other continuing education opportunities. The mentor plays the role of a teacher directing the participant in pursuit of knowledge.

## Managing a Mentoring Relationship

Becoming a mentor does not require previous mentoring experience. Experience is helpful, but most individuals have never had the opportunity to participate in a mentoring relationship. Mentoring also does not need to be complicated. Although some individuals have mentored extensively and have outlined the process in a helpful fashion, mentoring is simply building a relationship and sharing what has been learned. Often, an individual will mentor someone they already know and relate to regularly. In this instance, beginning a mentoring relationship simply requires discussing a more formal arrangement and an exchange of information.

## Valuing Differences in Mentoring

Differences in gender, race, educational background, religious beliefs, economic class, and family traditions can generate cultural differences that complicate the mentoring relationship. However, cultural differences and individual responses to them enable each person to appreciate special facets of a problem. Each individual approaches a solution to a problem from a different angle and contributes to a more comprehensive and effective solution.

Mentoring offers a powerful tool for benefiting from diversity. By listening, respecting differences and practicing inclusion, mentors and mentees can build a stronger organization.

## Coaching

Coaching and mentoring, although similar, are not interchangeable. Coaching is an intervention used to address performance problems. Typically, the "coach" is also the employee's manager or supervisor and the coach's role is to point out problems and recommend solutions. A coaching relationship is initiated and driven by the coach, whereas a mentoring relationship is initiated and driven by either the mentor or the mentee.

Coaching is also used in the following situations:

- When the growth of individuals in critical assignments needs to be accelerated
- When there is a significant increase in the complexity of the employee's role
- When the senior leader does not have sufficient time for a mentoring relationship
- When risks are high and the Agency cannot afford a failure

Although mentoring and coaching are not the same process, the mentor sometimes fulfills the role of "coach."

**Trust and Confidence**

A mentoring or coaching relationship requires trust. Both parties must feel that shared information is confidential. There are always risks involved in business relationships such as mentoring or coaching. Most individuals desire to start and build meaningful relationships that significantly influence their lives and careers. They also want to know that the information they share will not be used to their disadvantage in the future. Confidence and trust do not grow overnight; they must be earned and demonstrated over time.

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www.mentoringgroup.com

## LESSON 5
## Giving Feedback: "Clarifying Needs"

The process of giving and eliciting feedback furnishes information about accuracy and ways of improving performance. Feedback has both informational and motivational functions. Effective feedback informs the recipient of what does and does not work and allows the recipient to develop a cognitive model of the task, assisting recipients in mastering their environment. Feedback can increase motivation through reinforcing positive behaviors and correcting wrong behaviors. It helps to reduce uncertainty about whether performance is on track. Feedback satisfies psychological needs, increases expectations that effort will pay off, and encourages goal setting. Lastly, it keeps a channel of communication open between the recipient and giver.

### Goal Setting

Goal setting theory proposes that people plan what they are going to do and act according to their plans. Events in the external environment trigger a cognitive process in which the person evaluates the events against values. Values in this context refer to what the individual wants to attain. If the person's values are unsatisfied by the external event, they will experience a negative emotion, such as dissatisfaction with the event. The outcome of this emotional experience will be conscious intentions directed toward the completion of a goal.

In many organizations, managers meet with their subordinates at least once a year to set specific performance goals for the upcoming year or next performance cycle. Performance goals relate to results or expected outcomes.

Specific, challenging goals serve to:

- Direct subordinate effort toward performance of important duties and responsibilities.
- Encourage subordinates to find more efficient ways to do work.

Facilitate evaluation of subordinate performance by providing a benchmark against which to compare.

With specific, challenging goals, performance improves because specific goals guide effort into productive activities, and challenging goals energize a higher level of effort in accomplishing work. However, goal setting may be ineffective if leaders use goals to control and manipulate subordinates rather than to clarify role expectations and coordinate interdependent activities. When setting goals, senior leaders should consider the following guidelines:

- Set goals for relevant aspects of performance.
- Set goals that are clear and specific.

- Set a deadline for attainment of each goal.
- Set goals that are challenging but realistic.
- Consult with subordinates when setting goals.

Goal setting often fails when:

- Outcome goals are set instead of performance goals.
- Goals are set unrealistically high.
- Goals are set so low that they are not challenging.
- Goals are vague, and therefore useless.
- It is unsystematic, sporadic, or disorganized.
- Unprioritized goals are set, leading to feeling of overload.

Goal setting alone does not improve performance. The addition of performance feedback helps keep the performer on track in reaching both personal and organizational goals.

**Where Does It Start?**

Performance feedback is not just meeting with a co-worker or subordinate annually and discussing how well that person is doing and/or explaining areas that need improvement. It is part of larger performance appraisal process that starts at the beginning of employment. Discussing the whole process is beyond the scope of this pre-work. However, it is important to comply with the following prerequisites before giving feedback:

- Translate organizational goals into mutually accepted individual job objectives or requirements.
- Set and communicate clear expectations for job performance. This is usually done through a performance plan that is part of the Employee Evaluation Program found on the Annual Evaluation Form.
- Provide employee with the job training or coaching that they require in order to meet expectations.
- Acknowledge employee accomplishments and diagnose employee's relative strengths and weaknesses.
- Consider operational restraints that may impede performance.

## What Is Effective Feedback?

- Effective feedback is *informational,* not judgmental. For example, "That idea of yours won't work," does not give any feedback at all. The preceding statement was a judgment and not helpful. Explaining "why" it will not work is informative and is helpful.
- Effective feedback *compares results with goals (or objectives).* This furnishes the giver and recipient a standard to evaluate and discuss current performance with ideal performance. Both the giver and the recipient must be very familiar with these standards, and incorporate them within the recipient's performance plan.
- Effective feedback is *accurate*. It is not simply a guess, someone's opinion, or an estimate of what probably happened.
- Effective feedback is specific. It provides information on what the recipient did, not results from a group of performers. It must be descriptive and refer to the actual behavior to avoid misperceptions and misunderstandings.
- Effective feedback is *prompt*. It does not allow multiple incidents of poor performance to build up over time.
- Effective feedback is *direct*. It goes directly to the performer not to the staff or high level management. They might both delay or color the feedback as they pass it on.
- Effective feedback is *frequent* and *reliable*. Performers can count on it and can rely on it being complete.
- Effective feedback is comprehensive. Recipients must be able to understand their feedback and their needed areas of improvement or change.
- Effective feedback is *empathetic*. People who see each other as understanding and supportive are more open to exchanging feedback. Empathy adds an element of trust.

## Feedback Scripting

A feedback "script" can be a helpful tool in planning and structuring constructive feedback. Leaders can use the following script as a guide in presenting feedback and encouraging two-way discussion.

| | |
|---|---|
| **I feel . . .** | Happy, disappointed, concerned, proud, etc. |
| **When you . . .** | State the facts — what was observed. |
| **Because I . . .** | State the connection between what you observed and the feelings it provoked in you. |

*Pause for Discussion. Ask open-ended questions. (e.g., What are your thoughts about this?)*

| | |
|---|---|
| **I would like . . .** | Describe the change you want the other person to consider. |
| **Because . . .** | Discuss why you selected the change and why you think the change will be effective. |
| **What do you think?** | More two-way discussion. |

Script Example

| | |
|---|---|
| **I feel** | frustrated. |
| **When you** | leave a written list of assignments on my desk and then are out of touch for a long time. |
| **Because I** | think my needs for more information or clarification are disregarded, and I am expected to function as instructed with no opportunity to discuss the work. |
| **What are your thoughts about this?** | |
| **I would like** | to anticipate your absences and allow at least 15 minutes for us to discuss any assignments that you have in mind. |
| **Because** | you can get things done that are important to you and I can work with less confusion about what you expect, and I can have some feelings of control over my work. |
| **What do you think?** | How does this sound to you? |

**Facilitating a Feedback Session**

*Prior to the feedback session:*

1. Choose a private location to minimize interruptions.
2. Set enough time to complete the feedback session. Do not postpone the session or arrive late. The recipient may interpret these actions as a lack of interest in them and in the feedback process.
3. Gather all the materials and relevant information about the recipient's performance.
4. Allocate time according to priorities and develop an agenda.
5. Prepare and practice how to phrase critical negative feedback points to the recipient.

*During the feedback session:*

1. Explain the format and purpose of the feedback.
    a. To discover the recipient's opinions regarding their performance, problems, motivations, and career goals.
    b. To problem solve together about performance.
    c. To evaluate performance plans and make changes or additions if needed.
2. Establish a positive, productive tone for the feedback session (break the ice with some casual conversation, offer a cup of coffee or a soft drink).
3. Use feedback script as a guide.
4. Acknowledge the recipient's accomplishments. Explain the positive impact the recipient's accomplishments have had on the organization.
5. Support the recipient even while criticizing behavior.
6. Avoid defensiveness (on both parts). Keep emotions in check.
7. Encourage participation.
8. Ask if there are any conditions or problems that are hindering the recipient's work.
9. Problem solve with the recipient to improve performance.
10. Set objectives together and design an action plan for the next performance period.
11. Discuss the recipient's long-term career goals and the training and experience needed to reach them.
12. Thank the recipient for contributions to meeting team and organizational goals, and encourage similar future actions.

*After the feedback session:*

1. Complete the feedback report and provide a copy to the recipient.
2. Follow up on the training and coaching needs identified in the feedback session.
3. Schedule a follow up meeting.

**Positive and Negative Feedback**

For feedback to have any benefits, those evaluating performance must be willing to give undistorted feedback. Unfortunately, leaders are generally reluctant to give feedback. When they must give feedback, leaders appear more likely to consider to negative performance than positive performance. The feedback may be so distorted, however, that recipients fail to recognize it as negative. There is a tendency for leaders to give feedback they think the recipients want to hear.

Giving positive feedback is very important, especially when a difficult change is involved (e.g., a new responsibility or position). Recognition of work and results achieved is very important to an employee. As noted earlier, it can be very difficult to give negative feedback. A technique called "insertion" is helpful in delivering negative feedback. First, make a positive comment. Next, give the negative feedback. Finally, close with another positive comment. This technique is useful with an employee who is trying, making progress, or who just does not handle criticism well. Leaders should not use this technique when stern warnings are required.

**Communication Skills**

Effective communication skills are necessary for giving feedback. In order to give effective feedback, the sender must gear the message to the receiver. Both encoding (sender communicates meaning of message) and decoding (receiver translates message into a meaningful form) are heavily influenced by personal factors such as education, personality, socioeconomic level, family, culture, organizational role. Both the sender and receiver need to actively listen and communicate to make sure that each message translates correctly.

Defensiveness is one of the most common barriers to good communication. Once people become defensive, they have difficulty hearing the sender's message because they are too busy protecting or justifying themselves. Four ways to avoid provoking defensive communication are:

- Assume a problem-solving orientation rather than trying to control the situation
- Be spontaneous rather than strategic
- Show empathy rather than neutrality
- Be provisional rather than certain (do not react without finding all the facts)

Aggressive communication provokes defensive reactions. It differs from assertiveness, which is the ability to communicate clearly and directly "wants and needs" from another person in a way that does not deny or infringe upon the other's rights. For example, the use of an "I-Statement" produces dialogue rather than defensiveness. While a "You-Statement," often provokes a defensive response. For example, the statement "You are lazy and irresponsible," might make someone defensive. However, an I-Statement such as, "I need a 100% of your effort to get this job done by the 15$^{th}$" is descriptive rather than evaluative and is less likely to provoke a defensive response.

<u>Suggestions for Feedback Communication:</u>

- Make eye contact. Look the recipient in the eye when talking and listening. Avoiding eye contact indicates disagreement and an unwillingness to communicate.

- Use your body language (non-verbal communication). Aim your body toward the recipient and lean forward slightly. Smile occasionally, do not be a stone face. Avoid sending a message of superiority by crossing your arms or standing over the recipient. Strive for rapport.
- Use gestures to support your facial expressions. Do not let distracting mannerisms, overused phrases, or clichés get in the way of the message.
- Be prepared to stop talking at anytime and listen. Pause after giving the main points to allow the recipient time to absorb the new information. Make sure the recipient is following and understands. Tell the recipient what you are going to tell him/her, present your thoughts, and then tell the recipient what you told him/her.
- Focus on the facts. Avoid emotionally loaded expressions or criticisms that include insulting words, for example, "That was stupid."

<u>Techniques to Manage Recipient Resistance:</u>

- Hostile individuals usually make critical remarks and bully or overwhelm people.
  - Do not respond to shouting with shouting.
  - Ask the recipient to sit down and keep eye contact.
  - State opinions firmly and do not act frightened.
  - Stand up to the recipient without fighting.
  - If shouting continues, ask the recipient to leave and comeback when calm.

- Unresponsive people react only with yes/no answers or silence.
  - Ask open-ended questions and wait patiently.
  - Lean slightly toward the employee using body language to show interest.
  - Inform the recipient what the recipient must do to correct the problem.

- Overly agreeable people, while being very supportive, rarely produce what they say they will, or they act contrary to expectations.
  - Discover the underlying facts and ask for their input.
  - Be prepared to move toward action, expectations, and deadlines.

- *Negative People* always respond with comments like, "It won't work."
  - Present optimistic but realistic statements about past successes while making sure the problem is thoroughly discussed both positively and negatively.

- *Know-it-alls* appear condescending and pompous, but sometimes are truly experts.
  - Prepare by structuring questions toward facts and then raise problems.
  - Ask "what-if" questions to assist in reexamining performance concerns.

- *Stallers* slow down their decision making until others make decisions for them. They have trouble letting go of anything until everything is perfect, which it never is.
  - Make it easy for stallers to discuss conflicts or reservations that prevent their decision making.
  - Listen for indirect clues that may provide insight into problem areas and give support after a decision.

- *Criers* have problems controlling their emotions, and tears show it. The recipient is often as embarrassed and as uncomfortable as the feedback giver.
  - Leave the room and let the recipient gain composure, but identify the discomfort both of you are feeling.

- *Talkers* carry on discussions past their usefulness, often losing focus.
  - Decrease use of verbal and body language encouragement. That is, do not smile and nod as much.
  - Cut down on direct eye contact.
  - Close topic, move to a new topic by setting time limits, and remind the recipient of the discussion agenda.
  - Reward concise statements with positive feedback.

- If all else fails, apply the "*Stop-Look-Listen Approach*."
  - Stop the interaction before it comes argumentative or unproductive. Do not get angry, defensive, blame others, or lecture.
  - Look squarely at the problem and describe it succinctly to the employee.
  - Listen for suggestions and always resolve the problem together.

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www.mindtools.com

# LESSON 6
# 360° Feedback and Self-Development Plan Orientations

## General

360° feedback is a powerful tool for development. It offers an opportunity to take an honest look at oneself from a variety of viewpoints. The 360° instrument was custom-designed for USAID based on the new Foreign Service precepts. The survey feedback is specific and behavioral. It focuses on maximizing strengths, developing and minimizing weaknesses, and showing improvement over the six months between sessions.

## Purpose

The goal of 360° feedback is to help:

- Provide a basis for developmental planning
- Improve organizational and employee performance
- Enhance communication between participants and staff

## Confidentiality

Instruments are mailed to raters by, and then returned directly to, the contractor via email or fax. The contractor compiles and processes the survey data, which are kept completely confidential. At no time is this information — raw or processed — provided to anyone but the participants themselves.

## Feedback Process

The Group Orientation takes place on Day 2 and consists of the following topics:

- Description of 360° Feedback
- The Benefits of 360° Feedback
- Process
- Sample Report
- Distribution of Participants' Feedback Reports

Participants review their data and prepare for their one-on-one feedback session according to the guidelines provided during the group orientation. The one-on-one 360° feedback sessions are led by trained facilitators approximately 24 – 48 hours after participants receive their reports. After receiving feedback reports, participants develop plans that focus on strengthening weak areas. During the course of the training module, participants focus on developing their skills in these areas.

## LESSON 7
## Eliciting Feedback: "Exploring Perceptions"

The process of giving and eliciting feedback furnishes information about accuracy and ways of improving performance. Feedback has both informational and motivational functions. Effective feedback informs the recipient of what does and does not work and allows the recipient to develop a cognitive model of the task, assisting recipients in mastering their environment. Feedback can increase motivation through reinforcing positive behaviors and correcting wrong behaviors. It helps to reduce uncertainty about whether performance is on track. Feedback satisfies psychological needs, increases expectations that effort will pay off, and encourages goal setting. Lastly, it keeps a channel of communication open between the recipient and giver.

The following pre-work is a continuation of Giving Feedback: *Clarifying Needs* (Lesson 5 of this unit).

### Eliciting Feedback

Learning occurs when people get accurate feedback about their behavior and its consequences. Use this feedback to analyze their experiences and learn from them. However, a leader's behavior within operational units rarely provides useful feedback, and even when feedback is available it may not result in learning. The hectic pace and unrelenting demands make introspection and self-analysis difficult in any leadership position.

Two strategies for seeking feedback are available to senior leaders:

- *Monitoring* one's own performance.
- *Inquiring about one's* performance from others.

The concentration in this section focuses on the latter. Inquiry solicits data that show leaders how others perceive and interpret their attitudes and behaviors. However, inquiry can be risky. Many people would rather observe than inquire; they may be afraid of exposing a lack of skills or information. Yet, inquiry and feedback often provide new perceptions that conflict with old learning and become catalysts for new action and change.

<u>Three Types of Questions to Elicit Feedback</u>

*Open-ended questioning* — identifies attitudes, feelings, opinions, and other useful information. Examples include: How do you feel about…What could we do to…Why has this…? Open-ended questions can be in a hypothetical format. Examples include: Suppose you were…How would you do it if you were…What actions would you take if…?

*Reflective questioning* — retrieves a deeper level of communication and understanding. For example, "It sounds like something is really bothering you. Is there anything you'd like to say?"

*Trust conveying questioning* — elicits help or suggestions. For example, "How do you think I should deal with this problem?" This type of question expresses faith to the person questioned.

## Active Listening

Active listening is an important skill when eliciting feedback. It assists in preventing misperceptions and/or distortions from the sender. In order for active listening to work, the listener must accept the person for what he or she is without making judgements of right or wrong, good or bad, logical or illogical.

Active listening involves:

- *Paraphrasing* — putting feedback in own words and repeating it back to the feedback giver to test whether it was heard correctly.
- *Reflecting the implications* — takes the form of building or extending the ideas of the feedback giver. For example, "I guess if I did that, I'd be in a position to…?"
- *Reflecting the underlying feelings* — putting oneself in the place of the speaker, to experience how it must feel to be in his or her situation. For example, "If that happened to me, I'd be rather upset."
- *Inviting further contributions* — allowing a clearer understanding. For example, "Tell me more about that…or how did you feel when" (Kolb, Osland, & Rubin)?

## Feedback Sources

*Peers/coworkers* — are good sources because they often work close in proximity and have ample time to observe each other's behavior. However, there is potential for biases in the feedback. Peers may be unwilling to differentiate good from bad performers in the workgroup for fear of "rocking the boat." Unless the feedback is anonymous, the giver will most likely avoid negative feedback.

*Subordinates* — are a good source because they work directly with the target and have direct experience of the interpersonal behaviors of the target. However, subordinates rarely have information about task performance, and when they do, they are likely to know more about the results than the behavior. Again, unless feedback is anonymous, a fear of retribution may reside and affect the validity of the feedback.

*Upper management* — is a common source for feedback. However, the reliability and validity of the information collected depends on how close someone works with their supervisor. Higher-level supervisors and managers only encounter a narrow range of

behaviors. They may know the results of some tasks but are unlikely to know much about behavior except in those rare circumstances in which behaviors are highly visible and highly effective or ineffective.

*Customers* — are an exceptional complement to performance feedback. They can provide useful insights into the type of service delivery priorities. Some examples include friendliness, response time, problem recovery, and proactive problem solving. However, customers usually have a narrow range of interactions, and as a result, they may be constrained in the types of feedback they can provide.

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## OPTIONAL TOPICS

### Additional Leadership Skills: "Practical Power Applications"

Three practical applications of leadership skills include using leadership power, making presentations, and leading meetings — applications whose success or failure often define the quality of leadership for many. Leaders who use power inappropriately, put their audiences asleep with their presentations, or who facilitate unfocused, unproductive, and time-wasting meetings diminish their reputations and effectiveness with their coworkers and staff. On the other hand, leaders who apply leadership power correctly, make effective or inspiring presentations, and lead productive and vital meetings promote increased productivity and efficiency in others. This portion of the pre-work provides practical tips for improving these critical leadership applications.

### Leadership Power

The essence of competent leadership is the ability to effectively influence employees. Leader effectiveness results from knowing the appropriate type of power to use in each situation, and how to exercise the skill effectively. Research into leader power and effectiveness has identified five distinct types of power:

- *Authority* (legitimate/position power) — The legitimate right of the leader to make certain kinds of requests based on his/her position.
- *Reward power* **—** The leader's control over rewards valued by employees.
- *Coercive power* **—** The leader's control over punishments.
- *Expert power* **—** The leader's task-relevant knowledge and competence, as perceived by employees.
- *Referent power* **—** The employees' loyalty to the leader and desire to please him or her.

Effective leaders rely on expert and referent power to influence employees. Expert and referent powers tend to result in higher employee commitment; authority and reward powers tend to result in compliance; and coercion tends to result in resistance. However, effective leaders use all types of power at one time or another.

<u>Using Authority Power</u>

Employees generally accept the leader's right to make requests and delegate tasks. Leaders should make legitimate requests in clear, simple language, and verify employees understand what is required, especially if there is any indication employees are confused. Whenever appropriate, leaders should explain the purpose for the request so employees understand why their compliance is necessary. Finally, the leader should follow up to verify employees complied with the request.

Using Reward Power

A common use of reward power is to provide an incentive to do what the leader requests. These incentives are usually mechanical; for example, employees automatically earn a bonus or commission for each item they make or sell. However, offering specific rewards can involve some risk. Offering these rewards can make the leader appear manipulative. In addition, they are unlikely to result in commitment, even under the best conditions.

In most situations, it is better to use rewards to reinforce desirable behavior once it has occurred rather than as a "bribe." Leaders should use tangible rewards in conjunction with praise and recognition to communicate the message they appreciate competence and commitment. The rewards are not limited to money (e.g., pizza party, parking spot, time off, flexible hours, desirable work assignments). An effective leader discovers what employees value and uses these as rewards.

Using Coercive Power

Effective leaders generally avoid the use of coercive power because it is likely to create resentment and undermine leaders' referent power. Coercion is most appropriately used to deter behavior that is detrimental to the organization, such as violation of safety rules, or direct disobedience of legitimate requests.

Before criticizing or disciplining an employee, the leader should establish responsibility. If disciplinary action is required, the leader should impose it promptly and consistently without showing favoritism. Leaders should state warnings in a way that avoids the appearance of personal hostility toward the employee. The leader should remain calm, and convey a sincere desire to help the employee comply with rules and requirements to avoid the necessity of disciplinary action in the future.

Using Expert Power

Expert power relies on the employee's perception that the leader knows the best course of action. A leader's expert power increases when they suggest a course of action that is successful. To accumulate expert power, a leader should cultivate an image of experience and competence. It is essential to preserve credibility by avoiding careless statements and rash decisions. The leader should stay informed of technical matters and developments that affect the groups' work. In a crisis, the leader should remain calm and act confident and decisive. A leader who appears confused, vacillates, or panics, will quickly lose expert power.

Like authority, expert power involves a risk of highlighting status differences between leaders and employees. Leaders who act arrogant or patronize employees encounter resistance to their direction. Even leaders who have greater knowledge in certain areas should show respect for employees' ideas and suggestions, and attempt to incorporate them whenever possible. If employees have serious concerns about the leader's planned

course of action, the leader should attempt to address the concerns rather than dismissing them. The leader should carefully explain why the proposed course of action is the best one available and what steps will minimize risk to employees.

Using Referent Power

Referent power, like expert power, increases or decreases over the course of interactions between the leader and employees. Referent power increases by showing consideration, showing concern for needs and feelings, and defending employees' interests when dealing with others. Leaders who take advantage of employees, fail to support employees, or are not genuinely friendly will eventually find their referent power diminished.

An effective way to use referent power is through role modeling. In role modeling, the leader sets an example by behaving the way they want employees to behave. Employees tend to imitate leaders they admire, because they want to please and be more like them. A leader with considerable referent power influences employees in a positive way without making explicit requests.

## Power Presentations

Otherwise effective leaders often become apprehensive at the idea of making presentations. Other leaders try to bluster their way through masses of complicated, unorganized details; usually completely losing their audiences as they ramble. Anxiety is often the reason for ineffective presentations — at other times, lack of proper preparation is the problem. Naturally, audio-visual aids, demonstration materials, and other "props" can greatly improve a presentation. Another critical factor for successful presentations is the presenter's speaking skills.

The following nine tips can help senior leaders become better presenters:

1. Know your topic. If you really know your stuff, then by presenting it, you are performing a service for your audience. You may be saving them a good deal of time and effort. As you prepare for a presentation, list what you already know about a topic and what you need to research. If appropriate, try to go outside of your topic a little to find something different to help grab your audience's imagination or interest. A good rule of thumb is to spend 5 – 10 times more time on preparation than for the actual presentation — though preparation time becomes less and less with practice.

2. Know your audience. If your audience includes mainly people you work with every day, then you just have to address their information needs as you prepare your presentation. However, if your audience includes people or groups that you do not know well, you need to do additional research. Find out what is interesting to your audience — likes and dislikes. Offending people that you want to appeal to is a relatively easy mistake to make — when you do not know your audience. Get advice from an informant, if possible.

3. Tell your audience what you will talk about, talk about it, and then review with them what you talked about. "Today, I am going to talk about X" or "This morning I will be demonstrating Y" should be directly followed by the body of your presentation. At the end, briefly review what your presentation covered: "We talked about Z and you saw that A, B, and C all relate." Audiences usually feel comfortable with this simple and straightforward approach.

4. Keep your presentation as short as possible. If you have promised to spend no more than 15 minutes, try to use only 10 minutes. Short presentations are a relief to most audiences. Use extra time to answer questions or clarify issues.

5. Avoid reading your presentation. Except for short quotes or parts that are difficult to remember, memorize the main points of your presentation, with help from index cards or notes if necessary. Only professional actors and announcers can make readings sound natural and spontaneous. Unless you have drama skills, use overlearning to make your presentation material sound spontaneous. Some presenters like to use word-for-word scripts (which they rehearse); others are content to give a slightly different presentation of the same material each time they present. Use whatever method (straight memorization, general topic memorization, or some combination) you are most comfortable with. If you know your material very well, then your presentation is easier for the audience to follow. The more formal, forced, or dull a presentation sounds, the more difficult it is for the audience to follow.

6. Admit being nervous, if you are. Public speaking makes most people nervous. Admitting your nervousness to an audience in a humorous way can greatly relieve any "stage fright" you may have — and gain the audience's empathy. Make a small joke ("Microphones and large crowds always make me want to run away" or "Whew, speaking before all of you isn't easy. If I faint, I expect a few of you up front to catch me before I hit the floor, okay?") or use some physical humor indicating nervousness, such as rattling a glass of ice water, while claiming not to be nervous. Usually, trying to hide nervousness is counterproductive and may increase symptoms of anxiety, such as a shaky voice.

7. Begin by speaking about something simple. Make some comment about the here and now — the weather, the size of the room, a noise from the back, anything commonplace. Such everyday observations relieve the tension for both you and your audience and create a pleasant, friendly tone for your presentation. Try to enjoy your exchanges with the audience — and have some fun with the topic of your presentation, if possible.

8. Slow down and breathe deeply. "Speed demon" presenters are difficult for audiences to follow. Deliberately slow down and take deep breaths as you present. Keep your pace lively but moderate. If you find yourself speeding up, ask your audience a question. Let the exchange give you a chance to pause and the audience a chance to participate. A change in rhythm also helps keep people's attention. Move around a little as you present, if you can — which should help moderate your pace — but do not turn your back on the audience as you speak. Pause to take a drink of water, but avoid pausing to shuffle through your notes; make sure they are perfectly organized before you begin.

9. Practice makes perfect. Practice your presentation as much as possible. If you can, give a full "dress rehearsal" at the site of your actual presentation. Otherwise, practice in front of colleagues or friends, a mirror, family, or pets. Use a tape recorder or video camera to provide useful feedback. Change phrases that are difficult to remember or pronounce. Use the practice sessions to get all the "bugs" out of your presentation.

**Leading Meetings**

Do not underestimate the importance of a well-led meeting. Good meeting management is a skill that usually goes unnoticed. However, when meetings are poorly led, everyone notices (although typically no one tells the leader). Unfortunately, leaders are often unaware when they have poor meeting facilitation skills.

Most high-level leaders spend a significant portion of their time attending meetings. Sometimes an entire day is a series of appointments and meetings. The amount of time spent in these meetings can become a source of frustration as work piles up on desks and one more committee meeting drones on in a merry-go-round of unproductive discussion.

A nationwide survey in *The Wall Street Journal* reported that among top executives, meetings accounted for "the greatest amount of their unproductive time, topping telephone calls, paperwork, travel, and office gossip." Executives often characterize meetings as long, boring, and unproductive. However, there are common symptoms to this malaise of meetings, and there are prescriptions for getting out of the meetings rut.

Symptoms of Poorly Led Meetings

Knowing what contributes to lack of success provides direction for what to work on to insure success. Milo Frank lists several cause for unproductive meetings (*How to Run a Successful Meeting in Half the Time*):

- Lack of specific, clear-cut "objective" for the meeting, its leaders, or its participants.
- Lack of a meeting agenda.
- Too many or the wrong choice of participants.
- No consideration for allies or antagonists.
- Failure to prepare properly.
- Inability to present ideas concisely.
- Lack of sound leadership and control.
- Improper use of visual aids.
- Too many digressions and interruptions.
- Time wasted on "why" rather than "how."
- Mixed final decisions.

The symptoms of poorly led meetings can be categorized into three areas:

1. Purpose/objective
2. Agenda
3. Leadership

The role of each of these — purpose, agenda, and leadership — should be stated and clarified before each meeting. By clarifying the purpose and objective of the meeting, both the leader and participants know why they are there and what they are to accomplish. By identifying the agenda, attendees know what issues and items to discuss. Agendas provide action steps toward reaching goals and toward keeping meetings moving. By clarifying the leader's function, leaders and participants understand their respective roles in the flow of the meeting. Sometimes leaders may deliberately want to play a less influential role in a particular decision. This should be communicated clearly. Other times a leader may need to take a more authoritarian role. How the leader exercises the role in a meeting is critical to the effectiveness of the meeting.

Preparation for Meetings

A well-led meeting benefits all involved: the value of people's time is respected, the purpose of the meeting is clear, the discussion is kept on track, and action items are addressed in an efficient manner. When planning a meeting, be sure to consider the details such as "why," "when," and "where."

Why — Purpose and Agenda

Make the meeting's purpose clear and have an agenda. What should the meeting accomplish? What are the expectations of the participants? What type of meeting is required for the specific task? Is the meeting necessary? Before the meeting, prepare an agenda and — if necessary — ask the appropriate participants for additional agenda items. Then, distribute the agenda before the meeting. This gives the participants time to prepare.

There are different types of meetings — from formal to informal, personal to large group. There are meetings designed for specific purposes such as brainstorming, information gathering, problem solving, task forces, general purpose, communication, and decision making. Be sure to use the appropriate type of meeting for the particular purpose and issues.

When — Time and Scheduling

Consider the time of day when scheduling a meeting. The scheduled time for the meeting should be determined based upon the purpose and agenda. Timing can make a big difference. There are certain advantages and disadvantages to particular meeting times, including both the day of the week and the time of day. Certain issues require that participants have appropriate alertness, focus, and lack of scheduling constraints. For instance, if a topic is going to require lengthy discussion time, scheduling the meeting at 11:00 or 11:30 a.m. is probably not a good idea because lunch appointments may interfere. The disadvantage of scheduling meetings right after lunch is that people tend to be lethargic. Usually an early morning or mid-afternoon time works best. Careful consideration of timing and the people involved increases the chance for meeting success.

Where — Place and Setting

Choosing the right place can make a major difference in the success of the meeting. Sometimes the choices are limited or obvious depending on the workplace. Sometimes meetings require special locations and considerations. Either way, think through such factors as the setting, the seating, the media/equipment needs, the comfort factor, and the aesthetics.

Sometimes people take great pains to prepare materials, reports, and presentations only to have their plans go awry because nobody checked the room temperature beforehand. Do not underestimate the importance of the "little things"; participants appreciate it when thought and pre-planning is evident in meetings. Some things to consider are:

1. Reserve and check the room or location prior to the meeting. Know the logistics and assess how they will affect the meeting plans.
2. Determine appropriate seating arrangements.

3. Take care of any equipment needs (projectors, computers, etc.) ahead of time. Know how to operate the equipment. If it is an important presentation, arrive in time to do a dry run to make sure everything is in order.
4. Comfort considerations: Check the room temperature. Are there comfort facilities nearby? If it is a particularly long meeting, how comfortable are the seats?
5. Special considerations: Will tables be needed? If it is a discussion, is the room arranged appropriately ? Will there be food — lunch, snacks, etc.?
6. Territorial considerations: Sometimes it is important whose turf is involved. Is there a need for neutral territory? Is home court important? Is a personal touch necessary? Can this be a lunch or dinner meeting?
7. Minimize distractions: If people need to stay focused (and not distracted), then pick a meeting place that is relatively quiet and perhaps a little isolated. If a meeting is very critical, ask people to turn off cell phones and beepers for 30 minutes or an hour to stop almost all disruptions.

Ground Rules For Meetings

Having a group brainstorm and identifying ground rules can improve meetings in which group productivity is impaired. Participants can jointly formulate and publish or post this list as a mutual contract. Ground rules can be as individualized and detailed as necessary and may include:

- Arrival and start time.
- Stick to the agenda.
- Listen thoughtfully and respectfully.
- No interruptions, side conversations, whispering, telephone calls or other disruptions.
- Use appropriate humor.

Ground rules can be a way of having the group regulate itself. For instance, the group can come up with its own ways of dealing with dominating individuals, filibustering, passive participants, gridlock, etc.

Participant Expectations

It is not only important that the right people be at meetings, but also that the participants' expectations for involvement are clear. If participants are expected to prepare something, to make an important decision, or to give a report or update, the individuals should be given the appropriate notice of such expectations in advance of the meeting. When participants are surprised or "ambushed" (either accidentally or intentionally) in a meeting, it can have an adverse effect on group process and decision making.

Additional Suggestions for Leading Effective Meetings

- Keep things on track.
- Appoint a time keeper and note taker/recorder as necessary.
- Develop strategies for dealing with problem people.
- Be prepared for "ambush" questions and problem people.
- Improve your listening skills.
- Be aware of body language and unspoken messages.
- Learn to use humor well and appropriately.
- Build trust by being honest, positive, respectful, considerate, and consistent.
- Know and use your leadership style to both the group's and your advantage.
- Do your homework and come prepared.
- Clarify and summarize.
- Make assignments for action items and follow up.

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# UNIT 2: INTERPERSONAL SKILLS AND INFLUENCING "SUCCEEDING THROUGH PEOPLE"

## LESSON 1
## Purposeful Communication: "Getting to Win-win"

### Active Listening

The lack of effective listening skills is one of the top problems in North American businesses. Statistics show that the normal listener retains about 50% of a conversation. The retention rate drops to 25% about two days later. Active listening depends largely on the ability to listen without resistance or bias. Active listening is the most commonly referred to listening skill.

Effective active listening requires both attention skills and interactive skills. Attention skills refer to the way the listener perceives the message being transferred. Attention skills mean that we are listening with intent. Interactive skills are those needed to interact with the speaker. They include clarifying the information received, verifying it, and most importantly, acknowledging the sender's emotional content without making a judgment or providing any solutions.

Listening with Intent

Skilled or active listening is the key to processing information successfully. Listening with the intent to understand and accurately process the message being sent is the first critical element of healthy communication. Listening with intent involves at least three skills:

- Ability to focus one's attention in order to hear the message being sent.
- Ability to receive accurately and understand the whole message sent by another person – that is, the entire verbal, nonverbal, and emotional content of the message.
- Ability to encourage another person to continue to speak in order to build information.

The Art of Asking Good Questions

Listening does not mean that the listener does not speak. A good listener has the ability to engage the person speaking in helpful or meaningful conversation. A good listener has mastered the art of asking good questions.

Because few people ask questions of someone who is talking, conversation tends to be very one-sided – one person talking, the other person waiting for his/her turn to talk. Do a little experiment and listen to how people communicate. Notice how often people announce information versus how often they ask questions in order to elicit further information from others. Most people like to talk about themselves — that is fairly

common and understandable. But few people have developed the art of asking good questions in order to obtain information from others.

When asking questions, consider that there are different types of questions to ask. Closed-ended questions are questions that can be answered in a single word or phrase. Closed-ended questions are not the best questions to use when the goal is to draw out information from the speaker. Open-ended questions, on the other hand, require the speaker to elaborate, explain, or describe thoughts, feelings, or opinions in more detail.

Too often, people listen and respond from their own points of reference. Covey calls this "autobiographical" listening. When people listen autobiographically, they tend to respond in order to evaluate if they agree or disagree, to advise based on their own experience, or to figure out and explain based upon their own motives and behavior. Some tips on asking good questions are:

1. Seek to understand what someone has said by asking questions to clarify. What was not said that may be important?
2. While listening, do not think about what you are going to say next but what you are going to get them to answer next. Think of how to get the person to elaborate further.
3. Focus on the words the person is saying. Use their words as triggers for formulating questions of clarification.
4. Avoid playing "20 questions." Avoid asking a series of rapid-fire questions. Vary the types of questions you ask and interject comments. The goal is a conversation not an interview.
5. Use phrases such as:
   - "what do you think about…"
   - "how did you feel when…"
   - "how do you feel about…"
   - "what's your opinion on…"
   - "what do you think we should do about…"
6. Do not be afraid to ask an unusual question. Think of creative, unexpected questions that bring out the human side of the person talking. Personal questions show that you are interested in the messenger as much as the message.

Good questions demonstrate that the listeners are listening with intent and that they are interested in the details of what is being said. This leads to meaningful interaction and conversation. Good questions help listeners to understand what speakers are thinking and feeling about what was meant. Questions also may reveal that what the speaker initially communicated was not really what was intended.

Responsibility for Information

Responsibility for information is an important aspect of communication in the workplace. It is important for leaders to know how to process information in the context of their role as a leader and to be able to appropriately detach from that role in order to hear personal information in confidence. Leaders are entrusted with information from peers and subordinates. The nature of this information ranges from career decisions, to workplace complaints, to personal and confidential details. Since good listeners are a rare find, people tend to reveal more to such a person. Therefore, good listeners tend to receive more personal information. The leader's effectiveness at handling people and information increases as listening skills increase.

Cultural Factors of Listening

With an internationally diverse agency like USAID, miscommunication is likely to occur more often simply due to differences in language, culture, gender, and race. It is especially critical for leaders to understand how cultural and language differences can either complicate or improve the communication process. Different cultures have different cultural reference points and assumptions that need to be considered in order insure clear communication. Communication principles that may work fine in the United States may actually discourage diverse cultural practices.

Cultural communication practices often vary in terms of eye contact, interruptions, candor, and listening without regard to level or positions. What may be viewed as a healthy positive listening in one culture, may communicate the opposite in another culture. A cultural group's sense of place, time, space and the role of silence differ among cultures. All these impact communication patterns. To be a good listener in a diverse workplace requires that the leader understand the fine points of communication etiquette in other cultures.

Active Listening Tips

Keeping in mind the varying cultural factors, Acuff, in his book on negotiation, lists tips for effective/active listening that include:

- Limit personal talking.
- Concentrate on what the other person is saying.
- Maintain eye contact.
- Paraphrase and summarize the other person's remarks.
- Avoid jumping to conclusions.
- Watch for nonverbal clues.
- Listen for emotions.
- Ask for clarification when something is unclear.

- Do not interrupt.
- Pause for understanding and do not immediately fill the voids of silence.

Though listening skills and techniques are critical areas for leaders to develop, it is important to remember that the focus is not simply on improving skills and techniques but on improving the human and personal side of communication and relationships. Active listening in the workplace is built upon developing trust between the speaker and the listener. Trust results from leaders who perform with professionalism and integrity, while at the same time retaining approachability and humanity.

## Negotiation

Leaders spend as much as 20% of their time in negotiations. Negotiation occurs at all levels throughout organizations — from negotiating multi-million dollar contracts between Fortune 500 companies, to where to have lunch with a group of colleagues. Negotiating is a fundamental skill required for leaders to be successful.

According to Maddux, the definition of negotiation is "the process we use to satisfy our needs when someone else controls what we want." He warns about being in the middle of a negotiation without recognizing it. It is critical to size up the situation so that opportunities are not missed. Most people are constantly involved in negotiations and most need to further improve their skills.

Acuff states that in many ways the negotiation skills people need are those they used as a child. Children are persistent. They do not know the meaning of the word "no," and they know that often when someone says no they mean maybe. Children do not embarrass easily, and they read others better than others read them.

Characteristics of Win-win

Successful negotiators must have a positive attitude. They must view conflict as normal and constructive. Effective negotiators usually develop specific skills that enable them to challenge others and initiate a positive negotiation. A positive attitude is critical in the win-win philosophy of negotiation. Implementing the win-win approach to negotiation can help to avoid disaster. If the participants on one side of the negotiation take advantage of the other side, that other side may try to get even later. Win-win negotiating is just good business. When parties in an agreement are satisfied with the outcome, they work to make it succeed.

Individuals, groups, organizations, or nations entering a negotiation with one another all have reasons to negotiate. These reasons are unique to the parties involved. In successful negotiation, a negotiator wants to obtain something of greater value in exchange for something on which he or she places a lower relative value. Both parties can win. They may have wished for more, but end up satisfied.

The characteristics of win-win negotiation include:

- Having a win-win attitude.
- Understanding and applying the basic techniques of conflict resolution.
- Being flexible in approach and willingness to make some concessions.
- Being cooperative.
- Understanding the importance of the give/get principle in negotiating.
- Willingness to think through the objective of the negotiation in terms of wants, actual needs, and the values involved in advance.
- Genuine interest in the needs of the other party and a willingness to listen to their position and its basis.
- Having the patience to educate the other person as to the logic of one's position, rather than trying to rush through.

Basic Steps in Negotiation Process

Negotiation is not an event; it is a process. In negotiations, the process usually determines the outcome. It is important, therefore, for leaders to understand the stages or steps in the process.

Planning and preparation are critical factors for any successful negotiation. The first step in planning for negotiations is to develop objectives. Negotiators must determine what the parties want, need, and can give. This is the "get-give" philosophy. The next step is research. It is critical to know what expectations are realistic. Additionally, we must decide how much time is available for the process. Time pressure can force a negotiator to make concessions. If time is unimportant, the negotiator may be able to hold out for better terms. The final factor in planning and preparation includes identifying sources of power. Some positive sources of power include persistence, competition, expertise, legitimacy, involvement, and attitude.

Here are seven basic steps in the negotiation process (derived from Maddux, R.B. (1995). *Successful negotiation.* Menlo Park, CA: Crisp Publications, Inc):

1. Getting to know one another.
2. Statement of goals and objectives.
3. Starting the process.
4. Making decisions on roles of the individuals involved.
5. Expressions of disagreement and conflict.
6. Reassessment and compromise.
7. Agreement in principle or settlement.

Acuff explains what it takes to close a deal. He points out that people exchange their hard-earned money for two things: good feelings and solutions. There are both logical and emotional aspects to each stage of the negotiation. With these points in mind, negotiators must consider the following in order to close a deal successfully:

1. Satisfy the logical needs of the other side.
2. Satisfy the emotional needs.
3. Convince the other side that what is being presented is the bottom offer.

Successful negotiators set high goals. Successful negotiators usually are able to make consistently smaller concessions than their opponents. Additionally, successful negotiators tend to be unpredictable as to how much they will concede.

Mistakes Negotiators Make

Because of the importance of most negotiations, it is helpful for leaders to be aware of the common mistakes that can prevent success. Some critical mistakes negotiators make include:

1. Inadequate preparation.
2. Ignoring the give-get principle.
3. Use of intimidating behavior.
4. Impatience.
5. Loss of temper.
6. Talking too much and listening too little.
7. Arguing instead of influencing.
8. Ignoring conflict.

Cultural Factors in Negotiations

There are wide differences in the way people from different countries negotiate. These differences can stem from many areas, but the most important factors are cultural. While a U.S. negotiator values open and direct communication, a British negotiator may view such tactics as blunt, and an Asian or Pacific Rim negotiator may expect more respect, politeness, humility, and indirect communication. Most North Americans tend to negotiate in soft verbal tones, with few gestures and little emotion, but a Latin American style is more expressive and emotional, as well as full of gestures. Some North Americans view a weak handshake as an indication of relative strength of position. However, in cultures where handshaking is not the custom, a handshake is not a sign of the toughness nor firmness of a negotiator.

Some cultural factors affecting global negotiations include:

1. Use of time. Americans, Germans, Swiss, and Australians tend to be fast-paced and time conscious in negotiations, but other cultures, such as the Latin Americans and Middle Easterners, are much less oriented to the exact time on the clock. The rush and time-obsessed mentality of American culture is not how most of the world conducts business.
2. Individualism verses collectivism. Western countries rate high in what may be referred to as "I" consciousness — the sense of individualism. The opposite is true in Pacific Rim cultures which rate higher in "We" consciousness. For these cultures, the collective, group consciousness has a greater value. This collectivism affects decision making and time considerations because such cultures usually require more time to have their people commit to a particular decision. This also helps explain why an American negotiation team may have three members, but a Japanese team may have 13 members.
3. Role orderliness and conformity. Some cultures put a higher premium on the form and structure of negotiations rather than the content. Western cultures tend to focus more on the content of negotiations and have a more informal, ambiguous style. On the other hand, Pacific Rim cultures pay greater attention to ritual, methods of address, and formal language.
4. Patterns of communication. American negotiators often enter a meeting and get right down to business, speaking in logical and technological terms. If the receiver of this approach is from Egypt or Brazil the impact is negative. How things are stated, the context in which they are presented, and the process of delivering the message tend to be much more important in "high-context" cultures such as Egypt and Brazil (where the emphasis should begin more on concepts, beauty, and grace). Negotiators from "low-context" cultures, such as the U.S., must educate themselves in the important communication patterns of other countries.

The complicated interplay and interconnectedness of cultural factors have a high impact on various aspects of the negotiating process. They determine the pace and time factors in the decision-making process. Some of the aspects of the international negotiating process impacted are:

1. Pace of the negotiations.
2. Negotiating strategies.
3. Emphasis on personal relationships.
4. Emotional aspects.
5. Decision making.
6. Contractual and administrative factors.

The following table includes each of the regions within USAID and specific cultural factors that impact negotiations.

## Cultural Factors Impacting Negotiation

| Region | Use of Time | Individualism vs. Collectivism | Role Orderliness and Conformity | Patterns of Communication |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Latin America/ Caribbean | View time as abstract, no sense of urgency. | Individualism. The individual is valued not for accomplishments, but for identity. | Low need for role orderliness and conformity. Strong sense of dignity. | Verbal: Frequent use of voice inflection, gestures, and emotion.<br>Nonverbal: Close physical space, embracing is common, softer handshakes, smiles are valued. |
| Asia/Near East Region | Extreme patience. Emphasis on long-term relationship. | Collectivist orientation | Role orderliness is critical. | Verbal: Indirect communication. Do not say "no" directly. Active listening is critical.<br>Nonverbal: Reserved body language, brief eye contact, brief handshakes. |
| Eastern Europe & Newly Independent States | Punctual, or at most, begin meetings no more than ten to fifteen minutes past the appointed time. | Collectivist orientation | Decisions generally flow from the top down. | Verbal: Direct, straightforward, firm requests and demands.<br>Non-verbal: Close physical distances, expressive hand and arm gestures, firm and brief handshakes. |

| Region | Use of Time | Individualism vs. Collectivism | Role Orderliness and Conformity | Patterns of Communication |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Middle East and North Africa | Schedules are unimportant. May show up ½ to 1 hour late, or not at all. | Collectivist orientation | High need for role orderliness and conformity. Solid personal relationships are vital to successful negotiations. | Verbal: In Israel, quite direct. In Arab countries, indirect, vague, and expressive. Inferred messages.<br>Nonverbal: Expressive gestures, direct eye contact, close physical distance. |
| Sub-Saharian Africa | Varies depending on country. | Collectivist orientation | High need for role orderliness and conformity. Strong personal relationships. Formality and respect are key. | Verbal: Animated and friendly, direct and openly critical but not offensive.<br>Nonverbal: Physical space is close. Eye contact is limited. |

[Table derived from: Acuff, F.L. (1993). *How to negotiate anything with anyone anywhere around the world.* New York, NY: American Management Association.]

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## LESSON 2
## Conflict Management: "From Conflict To Collaboration"

> "If two people on the same job agree all the time, then one is useless. If they disagree all the time, then both are useless." (Darryl F. Zanuck)

Conflict is the result of differences that exist between individuals. It is basic to human behavior — inevitable in all endeavors involving people. Each unique person is bound to have views that differ from those of others. And differing views tend to generate conflict, which may range from mild irritation to no-holds-barred defiance.

Various studies define conflict in a number of different ways:

- **Conflict is a struggle between two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce rewards or resources, and interference from the other party in achieving goals, priorities, and tasks.** This means that each party involved perceives the other(s) as trying to block the achievement of goals and tasks. The feeling is that the others are intentionally stifling achievement. The aggrieved party will often fight back, escalating the conflict.
- **Conflict is the dynamic tension between people who are different.** Dynamic tension means that each party is passionately committed to a particular point of view. When the other person is in disagreement, the aggrieved party sometimes considers the other person to be difficult. Usually, however, the other person just has a different viewpoint.
- **Conflict is the difference between expectations and reality.** The people involved in the conflict have different perceptions about the facts of a situation. They may each have a different concept of a goal that is supposed to be achieved, how to accomplish it, when to do it, and who is supposed to do what. When facts become distorted, different expectations develop. When one party does not live up to the other party's perceived expectations, there is often conflict. For example, if five team members are in a meeting in which the team leader suggests a goal and a method for accomplishing it, each team member might hear a different method. As a result, they each do something different. If they fail in achieving the goal, they may blame each other because they have different expectations.

Conflict can have both positive and negative outcomes. The positive value of conflict is often underestimated. Properly managed, conflict is a valuable tool, particularly when conflict-ridden situations are confronted in the early stages. At this point, emotional involvement is still low, and problems can be solved by straightforward, rational approaches. Conflict can be detrimental, however, when resources or energies are applied and the corresponding outcome yields little or no progress.

Because conflict can force groups to confront possible defects in a solution, conflict can help teams produce better answers. Conflict encourages team members to analyze goals, procedures, and solutions for the best choice. By allowing conflict to enter into the decision-making process, the team is more likely to carefully analyze a number of potential alternatives before choosing a solution. Conflict management is the idea of confronting the differences and disagreements, staying focused on resolving the conflict, and arriving at acceptable conclusions to solve problems, make decisions, and carry out goals.

## The Nature of Conflict

Conflict often has substantive emotional, and ideological components. Conflict is substantive when discussion and disagreement focus upon specific facts, content, or information. Substantive conflict is much easier to resolve because issues are definable and less personal. Possible substantive conflict sources are:

- Incompatible goals
- Unmet expectations
- Disagreement over roles
- Information that is not shared
- Information that is interpreted differently

When conflict involves ideological beliefs and values (ideals, standards, customs, priorities), it can be very difficult to resolve as these issues are less definable, more personal, and often involve strongly held viewpoints.

## Sources of Organizational Conflict

There are many different sources or conditions that contribute to organizational conflict and to an "us" against "them" mindset. Although the mere existence of these conditions does not automatically lead to conflict, researchers have analyzed these conditions extensively, and studies show that they increase the probability that conflict will develop.

### Limited Resources

Organizational resources are finite. There are times when individuals and groups are forced to compete against each other for the resources that are needed to achieve their goals. Generally, the greater the scarcity of resources, the greater the potential for conflict. When one group does not get the resources it needs and another group does, it leads to speculation and value judgments about why.

Dependency or Interdependency in Work Activities

If the work activities of organizational groups must be coordinated, or if they depend upon each other for resources, then the potential for conflict is greater than for groups working independently. A disruption by any of the dependent/interdependent groups has the potential for bringing the entire system into conflict.

Differentiation of Work Activities within the Organization

The greater the number of groups with specialized work activities, the greater the tendency of these groups to develop different goals that bring them into conflict. Inclined to focus inward, specialized groups become distanced from, and uninterested in, the importance of other groups' work activities and their relationship to the organization's overall goals. In addition, these groups often develop their own specialized languages that are meaningless to anyone outside the group.

Communication Barriers or Problems

The dependency, interdependence, and differentiation of work groups require effective communication between individuals and groups. Exactly the opposite usually occurs. Time, distance, physical separateness, and the use of jargon increase the possibility of misunderstanding and conflict. Differing styles of communication (direct vs. indirect) can also cause conflict.

Differences in Perceptions

Individuals and groups see the world differently because their unique experiences filter how they view events, people, and conditions. These experiences result in various cultural values, moral standards, ethnic identifications, religious beliefs, prejudices, and political orientations. The value judgments attached to these differences influence how individuals and groups interpret different situations and behave. It is not possible to conclude exactly how an individual or group views the world unless we know the individual or group well. Nor is it possible to infallibly predict how these differences in perception impact conflict. The fact that these differing perceptions exist means that they must be included when contemplating possible sources of conflict.

External Organizational Environment

Changes in an organization's external environment can create major conflict. Decreases in funding, changes in regulations, or declines in the demand for service, often mean that available resources need to be reallocated among various groups. Conflicts occur as groups and individuals fight over the decreased resources in order to preserve their existence and to achieve their goals. According to Helen Frank Bensimon, "Downsizing, restructuring, and reengineering are turning workplaces upside down — making workers frustrated, scared and angry."

## Conflict Management

Although there are a number of different conflict-management styles and techniques, most techniques fall into one of three categories:

Suppression

Avoid, smooth over, and suppress the conflict. Generally, these techniques result in lose-lose outcomes, as team members are evasive and make little attempt to resolve the problem.

Escalation

Attack, force, fight, and come out the winner in the conflict. Generally, these styles lead to a win-lose situation as team members try to win at the expense of others. Members are aggressive and uncooperative preferring to overpower with their points of view rather than listen to others' viewpoints.

Management

Problem-solve, collaborate, communicate, and compromise in the conflict. Usually, these techniques result in a win-win scenario as team members consider the ideas of others and assume responsibility for presenting new ideas for consideration.

When involved in a conflict, each person has a choice: "Will I suppress, manage, or escalate the conflict?" Different situations call for different techniques. At times, suppressing and escalating may be the best choice. However, in most situations the best response is to manage the conflict.

Almost anyone can learn conflict management. Individuals usually have at least two preferred styles of conflict management and are often unaware that they may be over-using these styles and neglecting others. One size does not fit all, especially in a pressurized, intense conflict. In order to identify and internalize the new skills learned, self-awareness is required. First, take an internal inventory of values, needs, and personal style. Then, choose the techniques that are most appropriate for the situation, the parties involved, and personal style.

## Conflict Management Styles & Techniques

| Styles & Techniques | Description | When to Use | Possible Result |
|---|---|---|---|
| Avoidance<br><br>(Suppression) | A lose/lose method of conflict management. Conflict is ignored or denied. Participants often care about the problem but may lack confidence in their ability to effectively deal with it. | Differences are too minor or great to resolve.<br>Attempts at resolution may create greater problems.<br>No possibility of satisfying all needs exists.<br>Survival is the issue and escape is possible. | Participants miss an opportunity for learning and growth. They may feel dissatisfied and have doubts about their ability to resolve similar conflicts in the future. |
| Accommodation<br><br>(Suppression by accommodating party) | A lose/win method of conflict management. Needs of other participants involved in the conflict are met at the expense of another. | An issue is minor or unimportant to one side but is important to the other party. To gain experience by trying something new. To allow a better position to be heard. | Inappropriate use may result in over conformity, dissatisfaction, and resentment on the part of the accommodating party. Ideas are not discussed or examined. |
| Forcing/ Dominating/ Controlling<br><br>(Escalation) | A win/lose, aggressive/uncooperative method of conflict management. Compliance is gained through directives, punishments, and pressure. Manager picks the winner. | Speed is vital. Relevant data is confidential.<br>Outcome is too minor for time-consuming methods.<br>Other techniques have resulted in a stalemate. | The winner is happy, the loser is not. The loser may retaliate. Bad feelings (resentment, anger) may continue to exist and resurface later. |
| Compromise/ Bargain<br><br>(Management) | A win/win method of conflict management. It involves giving each of the parties some of what they want. Each participant must give up something to achieve a resolution that all can "live" with. | Allows solutions to major conflicts to occur. The "you give—I give" motivation is the only one moving the participants toward a solution. To achieve temporary solutions to complex problems. | Participants in the conflict do not get everything they want.<br>Some participants may feel that they are losers. |

| Styles & Techniques | Description | When to Use | Possible Result |
|---|---|---|---|
| Consensus<br><br>(Management) | A win/win method of conflict management. Requires participants to work together to find the best solutions. Consensus does not mean unanimity, it does mean all participants agree to support the solution. | To improve group cohesiveness.<br>To build teams.<br>An issue is so important that all participants can easily see that the conflict must be resolved. | Participants move away from the win/lose mentality towards a win/win mind set. This method takes advantage of diverse resources and opinions within the group. |
| Collaboration<br><br>(Management) | A win/win method of conflict management. Participants collaborate to problem solve.<br>Time, interpersonal skill competence, active listening, empathic listening, commitment, and trust are all required. | Issues are too critical to the group's or organization's success to be compromised.<br>To gain commitment and build teams. High quality solutions are desired. | Collaborative solution meets the needs of all participants. Open discussion of concerns, issues, and goals occurs.<br>All participants needs are considered important.<br>Results in the most effective solutions. |

## Strategies for Resolving Conflict

| STEP | ACTIONS |
|---|---|
| Explore/diagnose the problem. | ➢ Identify the real source of the conflict.<br>➢ Differentiate between problems that are ideological (value laden) and those that are substantive (content driven).<br>➢ Identify all stakeholders in the conflict.<br>➢ Identify obstacles (internal and external) that block resolution. |
| Use active and empathic listening skills. | ➢ Do not interrupt.<br>➢ Maintain eye contact.<br>➢ Limit personal talking.<br>➢ Watch for non-verbal clues.<br>➢ Avoid jumping to conclusions.<br>➢ Concentrate on what the other person is saying.<br>➢ Paraphrase and summarize the other person's remarks.<br>➢ Listen for the emotions/feelings of the other person.<br>➢ Reflect the emotions/feelings of the other person.<br>➢ Rephrase the content and reflect feelings again.<br>➢ Ask for clarification when something is not clear.<br>➢ Pause for understanding and do not immediately fill voids of silence.<br>➢ Use "I" messages.<br>➢ Do not be afraid to say, "You may be right."<br>➢ Encourage team members to speak for themselves.<br>➢ Focus on issues, not on people. |
| Use problem-solving skills. | ➢ Brainstorm a number of possible solutions.<br>➢ Evaluate each proposed solution.<br>➢ Choose solutions that are mutually beneficial and satisfying to all parties.<br>➢ If no resolution occurs, then go back to exploring and diagnosing the problem.<br>➢ Document the solution.<br>➢ Plan the implementation of the solution. |

| STEP | ACTIONS |
|---|---|
| Implement the solution. | ➢ Identify how to monitor the solution.<br>➢ Follow-up and evaluate the solution.<br>➢ If the solution is not working, then begin the problem-solving process again. |

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## LESSON 3
## External Collaboration: "Weaving a Fabric of Success"

> "Nothing legitimates and substantiates the position of leaders more than their ability to handle external relations." (L. Sayles, *Leadership: Managing in Real Organizations*, p. 44)

No organization can maximize its effectiveness by taking an isolationist stance. This is especially true for an agency such as USAID that is part of a well-developed bureaucracy. As the subtitle for this pre-work section suggests, organizations are part of a fabric. Establishing collaborative relationships helps senior leaders increase the value of this fabric. Effective networking, trust building, persuasion, and influencing by senior leaders provides a setting for collaboration with individuals and organizations outside the Agency.

### Organizations as Collaborating Entities

Over the last forty years, inter-organizational collaboration has become much more common. This trend started first with a growth in business alliances domestically, then internationally. In the 1980s, business–government partnerships rose in popularity. Presently, government, business, and civil society organizations often collaborate their efforts to achieve common objectives.

The typical frame of reference for collaboration is individuals. It is individuals who must work together to produce collaboration. Senior leaders typically are the link between the Agency and individuals from external parties. Effective senior leaders deal profitably with these individuals to facilitate protection of Agency activities and collaboration to fulfill inter-organizational goals.

Unfortunately, such a limited individual-to-individual perspective of collaboration can cause leaders to overlook key organizational dynamics. It is important to realize that organizations themselves are entities with their own values, traditions, aspirations, competencies, and culture that guide their operations. Therefore, senior leaders must interact with individuals from outside the Agency at two levels: an individual-to-individual level (e.g., using skills discussed earlier in this Unit) and an organization-to-organization level. When negotiating or networking with other entities, leaders must understand the preconceived perceptions (positive or negative) — based on mere organizational affiliation — their counterparts have about USAID. For example, when negotiating with someone external to USAID, a senior leader needs a good understanding of that individual's perception of the senior leader *and* the individual's perception of USAID in general.

## The Importance of Trust in External Collaboration

Trust appears to be a key component of establishing collaborative relationships both internal and external to an organization. Fells defines trust as a "willingness to take unilateral action which might lead to exploitation but which anticipates a non-exploitative response from the other person [or organization]." Situations requiring trust emerge when external collaboration depends on the actions of both (or all) parties involved.

Establishing trust is a process requiring networking and relationship building. Leaders must build trust during each interaction that they have with external parties. Effective leaders understand that building trust is often a deliberate activity when collaborating. Fells provides the following four recommendations for facilitating trusting relationships:

1. Show willingness to trust — Leaders should give indications of their own readiness to trust first. For example, emphasize benefits to one's own organization of achieving a collaborative outcome.
2. Check understanding — Leaders should ensure that the other party is interpreting the "trusting" signals correctly.
3. Reinforce the other party's willingness to trust — Leaders should react positively to any trusting behaviors or responses by the other party.
4. Indicate the adverse consequences of a failure to respond — If the previous three actions fail to generate a willingness to trust, leaders can remind the other party of the detrimental effects (e.g., reduced effectiveness of collaborative actions) of not reciprocating trust signals. Leaders should also reiterate the beneficial consequences of building a trusting relationship.

## Using Persuasion and Influencing Principles to Collaborate Externally

Senior leaders need effective persuasion and influencing skills to sell the Agency's ideas, to gain acceptance of Agency plans or policies, and to motivate external parties to support and implement USAID activities. While legitimate position power is often enough to persuade and influence internal USAID staff, senior leaders must rely on other techniques when working with high-level personnel outside the Agency. Yukl outlines nine potential influence tactics:

- Rational Persuasion: The persuader uses logical arguments and factual evidence to persuade others that a proposal or request is viable and likely to result in the attainment of shared objectives.
- Inspirational Appeals: The persuader makes a request or proposal that arouses enthusiasm by appealing to others' values, ideals, and aspirations, or by increasing others' self-confidence.
- Consultation: The persuader seeks participation in planning a strategy, activity, or change for which the persuader desires support and assistance.

- Ingratiation: The persuader uses praise, flattery, or friendly or helpful behavior to gain support.
- Personal Appeals: The persuader appeals to others' feelings of loyalty and friendship.
- Exchange: The persuader offers an exchange of favors, or promises a share of benefits, for support.
- Coalition: The persuader seeks help or support from others to persuade a target person/group.
- Legitimating: The persuader establishes the legitimacy of a request or viewpoint using their authority or citing policies, rules, or previous actions by others.
- Pressure: The persuader uses demands, threats, frequent checking, or persistent reminders to influence others.

Based on extensive research, Yukl summarizes the effectiveness of each of these influencing tactics in the following table:

**Summary of Results Found for Each Influence Tactic**

| *Influence Tactic* | *Directional Use of Tactic* | *Sequencing Results* | *Used Alone or in Combinations* | *Likelihood of Commitment* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Rational persuasion | More up than down or lateral | Used more for initial request | Used frequently both ways | Moderate |
| Inspirational appeal | More down than up or lateral | No difference | Used most with other tactics | High |
| Consultation | More down and lateral than up | No difference | Used most with other tactics | High |
| Ingratiation | More down and lateral than up | Used more for initial request | Used most with other tactics | Low to moderate |
| Personal appeal | More lateral than down or up | Used for initial request | No difference | Low to moderate |
| Exchange | More down and lateral than up | Used most for immediate follow-up | No difference | Low to moderate |
| Coalition tactic | More lateral and up than down | Used most for delayed follow-up | No difference | Low |
| Legitimating tactic | More down and lateral than up | Used most for immediate follow-up | Used most with other tactics | Low |
| Pressure | More down than lateral or up | Used most for delayed follow-up | No difference | Low |

[Yukl, LEADERSHIP IN ORGANIZATIONS, copyright 1997, pp. 215. Recreated by permission of Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, New Jersey.]

Persuasion involves moving people to a position they may not currently hold. Preparing to persuade external parties can take weeks or months of planning as persuaders learn about their audience and prepare the content of their messages. Conger identifies four essential steps to effective persuasion:

1. Establish credibility – Leaders often overestimate their credibility considerably. Leaders establish credibility through *expertise* and *establishment of interpersonal relationships*. Leaders exhibit expertise through a history of sound judgment and by being well informed about their proposals or viewpoints. Leaders high in

interpersonal relationship skills demonstrate that they can be trusted to listen and to work in the best interests of others.

2. Frame for common ground — Leaders should identify shared, tangible benefits for those they are trying to persuade. Leaders effective at persuasion study the issues that matter to their counterparts.
3. Provide evidence — The most effective persuaders use stories and vivid language when providing evidence to support their point of view.
4. Connect emotionally — Senior leaders must show that their commitment to their goals is not just in their heads but also in their hearts. Without some demonstration of feeling, others may wonder if the leader actually believes in the position.

In addition to the influence tactics provided by Yukl and persuasion steps outlined by Conger, Robert Cialdini describes six psychological principles of influence in the book *Influence: Science and Practice*:

1. Rule of Reciprocation — The natural human tendency or sense of obligation that causes people to want to reciprocate amiable gestures made by others. Senior leaders can increase their influence of external parties by using good-natured actions to "obligate" the external party to reciprocate in the future.
2. Consistency and Commitment — Refers to people's desire to be consistent with their own previous actions. Senior leaders can use this principle by first eliciting small commitments from the external party; then, obtaining deeper commitments later due to the external party's desire to act consistently.
3. Social Proof — Humans often determine what is "correct" just by finding out what other people think is correct. Senior leaders may be able to influence some external parties just by indicating their own conviction that the requested action is the "right" action to take.
4. Liking — People tend to agree with those they know and like. Networking is the key action senior leaders can use to apply this principle in their interactions with external parties.
5. Authority — The inclination to obey a figure seen as having some sort of authority. To use this principle to their advantage, senior leaders must clearly communicate the authority and importance of their position when dealing with external parties, even external parties (e.g., the Ambassador) who hold more powerful positions than them.
6. Scarcity — Scarcity is the idea that opportunities (for collaboration) seem more valuable to people when these opportunities are limited (e.g., limited in time or availability). To apply this principle, senior leaders can attempt to make external parties feel that they are somehow special in respect to a scarce opportunity for collaborating with USAID.

While supporting the six influencing principles listed above, Fatt reinforces the need for influencers to carefully consider the content of their message, and use effective listening and nonverbal communication skills to their advantage. Leaders should be highly selective with the content of the message communicated by tailoring the content to the external party's interests, wants, and desires. Leaders must understand that collaboration is a two-way process requiring active listening techniques for discovering and verifying the needs of their audience. As when interacting with staff inside the Agency, USAID senior leaders must also effectively use and interpret nonverbal communication when communicating and collaborating with external parties.

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# UNIT 3: THINKING STRATEGICALLY
# "A COMPASS FOR EXCELLENCE"

## LESSON 1
## Analytical Skills: "Broadening the Thinking Horizon"

Much of a senior leader's role involves making decisions of one sort or another. There are numerous decision-making models and books to help evaluate factors, and several of these appear later in this unit. But at the base of more effective decision making is improving thinking skills — particularly learning to think more strategically, increasing analytical skills, and evaluating factors and solutions efficiently and critically.

Strategic thinking requires a broad overview of the task environment, the "big picture," and may be the most difficult thinking skill for senior managers and leaders to improve because many leaders see strategic thinking as too time consuming or too vague. When strategic thinking seems to waste time without yielding any immediate benefits, managers often leap to solutions and implementation based solely on past experience. And, in the short term, rapid problem solving often seems to work well — but not always. Hasty problem diagnosis and "quick cures" can lead to disasters in the short term, long term, or both.

### The Worst Failure

Failing to plan, both strategically and tactically, is a typical error made by senior managers and leaders. Under the pressure of too many urgent problems and tight deadlines, managers often claim that they do not have time to plan or to think of the long-term consequences of their actions. Detailed analyses, evaluations, and long-term plans typically become "paper weights" on their desks and eventually wind up in storage or the trash. Such failure represents a failure to think strategically.

Ironically, limited resources, tight deadlines, and urgent problems require — according to Edward de Bono — thinking slowly, step by step. Rapid thinking may work well on exams and quizzes, but the real world requires a full strategic understanding. The less time a leader has to think strategically, the more critical strategic thinking becomes. Even in emergencies, thinking must become more deliberate, focused, and exploratory to avoid wasting precious time and resources. Obviously, leaders can least afford false starts and ineffective efforts when time, staff, and resources are limited.

## Ten Guidelines for Thinking Strategically

The purpose is not to give a comprehensive guide to improving thinking skills but to offer some practical approaches. Naturally, fallacies in our thinking, blind spots, or lack of discipline to follow through can contribute to sabotaging solutions from the start. Good intentions alone cannot adequately offset poor thinking and planning.

When a world champion chess player was asked why he was studying an elementary book on chess strategy, he responded, "Over time you tend to forget about the basics and overlook opportunities. Refreshing your basic skills improves your winning chances." This champion's study of basic strategies also guards against what de Bono calls "the major sin of thinking" — arrogance.

Specific models and steps for problem solving and decision making appear later in this unit, but the following are general guidelines for strategic thinking:

1. Accurately identify and acknowledge the problem.

   Getting to the real problem — not just its symptoms — is critical. How a problem is defined determines the procedures used in its solution. Denying a real problem or trying to resolve a non-existent one results from blind spots and false assumptions. Assessment must include a very broad investigation of the issues and task environment, especially when circumstances are complex.

2. Ask the right question(s) to guide the investigation.

   Don't underestimate the importance of a well-formed question. Asking questions is part of any systematic or scientific investigation. Formally list important questions and the types of information needed.

3. Examine the assumptions used at every step.

   Keep updating your list of assumptions from problem definition through alternative solutions. A thorough investigation should challenge and redefine assumptions as new facts, patterns, and approaches emerge.

4. Form tentative conclusions at first.

   It's not a perfect world — there is not always a perfect conclusion or solution to every problem or issue. When a final, single solution is determined too soon, leaders may curtail the thinking process prematurely.

5. Connect the dots.

   Look for connections and links between pieces of information. Follow through on any emerging patterns, but beware of jumping to conclusions. Faulty thinking and poor solutions result when you make inappropriate connections. Play devil's advocate for any tentative connection — and keep all new connections tentative.

6. Clarify immediate solutions, quick fixes, and long-range solutions.

   Don't think only in terms of the immediate time frame. Thinking strategically involves thinking in terms of long-term solutions and the implications of the "big picture." Quick fixes may be attractive for the immediate pay-off. However, there may be problems down the road. Clarifying the solutions is a necessary pre-step to weighing the consequences and considering multiple alternatives.

7. Synthesize parts and wholes.

   Bring all the information together cohesively in terms of parts and wholes. Synthesizing is being able to keep both the parts and the whole in view at the same time to gain a more accurate picture of key relationships.

8. Weigh the consequences and ask: "Is this solution really an improvement?"

   Consider the "ripple effect" of implementing any solution. What else is likely to be affected? What might be some unexpected results? Think of scenarios associated with your solutions. Determine if the changes are likely to improve circumstances and impact problem areas positively.

9. Use both creative and critical thinking.

   Employ creative thinking techniques, such as brainstorming or seeking helpful metaphors and analogies, to help solve problems. Critical thinking is often confused with criticism, but they are different. Critical thinking implies constructive evaluation and selecting the best candidate solutions. It is creative assessment, not the beginning of a conflict.

10. Consider multiple alternatives and contingency plans.

    Have more than one alternative solution, evaluation, or explanation. Multiple options are not necessarily an indication of indecision or lack of conviction. In many cases, there is not one correct solution. Multiple alternatives can provide a sense of confidence in the thoroughness of the investigation. Before implementing any solutions, develop contingency plans based on some of the alternative solutions. Prepare for surprises and sudden changes whenever feasible. Be ready with Plan B.

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## LESSON 2
## Priorities: "A Question of Balance"

> "My life is hectic! I'm running all day — meetings, phone calls, paperwork, appointments. I push myself to the limit, fall into bed exhausted, and get up early the next morning to do it all again. My output is tremendous; I'm getting a lot done. But I get this feeling inside sometimes, 'So what? What are you doing that really counts?' I have to admit, I don't know." (From: S. Covey, *First Things First*, p. 17)
>
> "All I have are priorities! I'm swimming in priorities and I don't know where to start." (From: A. MacKenzie, *The Time Trap*, p. 35)

### Individual Priorities

Organizational leaders rarely have the time or resources to do everything they want to do. Often, the number of tasks, problems, and decisions seem overwhelming because of the huge demands placed on the senior leader's time. These demands leave leaders with feelings of loss of control, of being overburdened with work, or of facing hopelessly large obstacles to achieving results. Although there are many time management and priority-setting approaches available, many leaders do not use their time most effectively. Two reasons are that some leaders actually enjoy the "adrenaline rush" of meeting tight deadlines, and other leaders are more comfortable with working in "crisis management" mode. Unfortunately, relying on tight deadline and crisis management practices leads to high levels of stress; a disrupted private life; fatigue; and, often, failure of programs.

<u>Time Management Matrix</u>

Covey's Time Management Matrix is one effective tool for managing time and establishing priorities for tasks to be performed, problems to be solved, or decisions to be made. The Time Management Matrix consists of categorizing tasks, problems, or decisions into one of four quadrants.

In Quadrant I, Covey includes issues that are both *urgent* and *important*. This area is where leaders should spend most of their time; where leaders manage, produce, and bring their experience and judgment to bear in response to needs and challenges. Leaders must not ignore issues in Quadrant I.

Tasks that are *important*, but not *urgent* are included in Quadrant II. This "Quadrant of Quality" is where long-term planning takes place. Spending time in this quadrant reduces the quantity of *important* issues that become *urgent* issues; otherwise, many Quadrant II issues move from *not urgent* to *urgent* through procrastination, or because of lack of planning.

Quadrant III includes issues that are *not important*, but are seemingly *urgent*. Many of the items in this quadrant, if urgent at all, are urgent to someone else rather than the leader. Finally, Quadrant IV includes issues that are neither *important* nor *urgent*. This is the quadrant where ineffective leaders "escape" to avoid addressing issues in the other urgent or important issues.

Some leaders force themselves to spend all of their time in Quadrant I. They are engaged in solving problems all day every day, and manage their lives by reacting to crises. In crisis mode, a leader's priority becomes "putting out fires." Other leaders spend much of their time in Quadrant III, and therefore react to the *urgent* — wrongfully assuming it is *important*. They may work very hard all day doing little jobs that have little effect on the quality of results they produce. Generally, however, urgency is a result of priorities and expectations of others. Effective leaders avoid Quadrants III and IV because, urgent or not, they are not *important*. They also keep Quadrant I manageable because they spend considerable time addressing issues in Quadrant II. Quadrant II is the basis of effective personal management. It deals with things that are not *urgent*, but are *important*.

Finally, leaders can and should delegate some issues they face to others (e.g., many tasks, problems, or decisions in Quadrants III and IV). Effective leaders are willing to delegate tasks to others even though others may require more time to complete the task. An additional advantage of delegating tasks is lower costs — considering the high financial costs of the senior leader's time compared to the costs of support staff.

Scheduling

Most senior leaders understand the concept and importance of using schedules and planners. However, time scheduling does not guarantee effective time management. Very few leaders can rigorously keep a detailed schedule day after day for a long period. One flexible method of time management helps leaders become more effective by establishing long-term, intermediate, and short-term priorities:

- Long-term schedule — A schedule of fixed commitments only. These include only obligations required every week.
- Intermediate schedule (weekly) — A short list of major tasks and amount of work to accomplish for the current week.
- Short-term schedule (daily) — A detailed list of what the leader wants to accomplish for the day.

Prioritized "To Do" Lists

Prioritized "To Do" lists are very simple, yet effective ways for leaders to prioritize and organize their work efforts while reducing stress. A common process for preparing prioritized "to do" lists is to:

1. List the tasks to be completed (break large tasks down into their component tasks).
2. Rate each task from 'A' (very important) to 'F' (unimportant). If a high percentage of the tasks receive an 'A,' review the list again and demote the less important high-priority items.
3. Rewrite the list in priority order.

There is no one best time to prepare the "To Do" list. Some leaders prefer doing them at the end of each day for the next day, while others prepare their lists at the beginning of each day.

## Agency/Operating Unit Priorities

At the Agency/operating unit level, priorities drive where funds are spent and how resources are allocated. Senior leaders play a key role in setting these priorities. Often, guidance on setting priorities comes directly from higher sources including Congress and the Administration. In addition, Agency and operating unit strategic plans, policies and procedures, and USAID's core values impact the process of priority setting. Based on these various sources of input, senior leaders should guide their operating units to systematically establish priorities within the operating units. Because stakeholders and customers are most affected by Agency/operating unit priority decisions, some government agencies (e.g., Department of Energy) develop priority-setting systems to standardize priority decisions affecting stakeholders and customers. The Department of Energy describes an effective priority-setting system as one that has the following attributes:

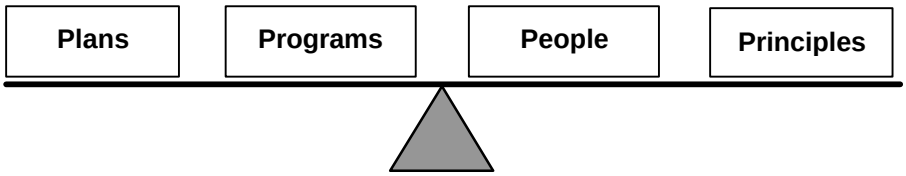
- Permanence and consistency — the priority-setting system should be described and implemented consistently.
- Clarity and transparency — the entire priority-setting process should be as clear and transparent to affected stakeholders as possible.
- Simplicity — the simpler the system and its tools are, the more likely the system will be followed and trusted.
- Stakeholder involvement — while stakeholders do not have authority to determine funding or resource allocation, they should participate in and understand the factors for priority-setting decisions.

## Conflicts in Priorities

Priority conflicts sometimes arise when leaders must choose between their individual priorities and the priorities of the Agency or operating unit. Senior leaders should be aware of the need to balance priorities in four areas:

- Plans — Priorities related to strategic plans (e.g., IASP, Agency Strategic Plan), operating unit plans, vision statements, etc.
- Programs — Current and past programs (i.e., activities), policies and procedures, regulations, etc.
- People — Staff, stake holders, customers, family members, etc.
- Principles — Personal-guiding principles, Agency core values, etc.

**Priority Balance Beam**




In ideal situations, priorities for plans, programs, people, and principles coincide. Other times, leaders must emphasize priorities in certain areas to the detriment of other areas. While there is generally no perfect balance among these priorities, leaders can make decisions more effectively when they consider how the priorities they set affect each of the four areas.

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## LESSON 3
## Decision-Making: "Decisions, Decisions, Decisions"

> "There is no single or simple step-by-step process guaranteeing us we will solve every problem we encounter. We are faced instead with the requirement to configure or adapt our problem solving processes to fit the problem at hand." (From: Fred Nickols, "Ten Tips for Beefing Up Your Problem Solving Toolbox" — http://home.att.net/~nickols/tentips.htm)

### Techniques and Tools

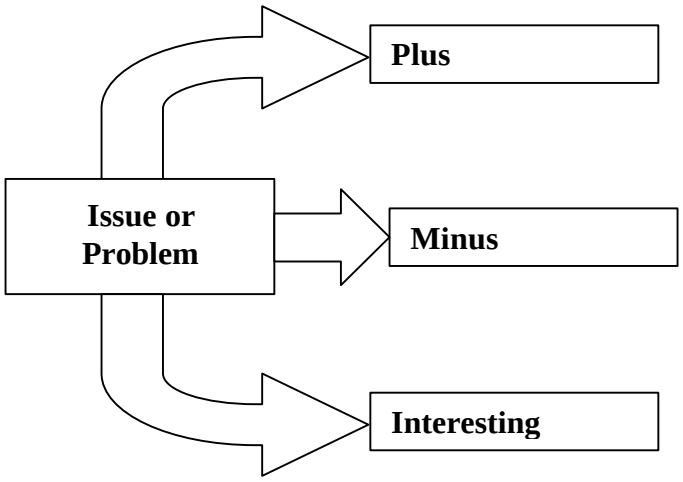
The best decision makers and problem solvers usually use some decision-making tool or follow a specific problem-solving procedure, such as the Ten Guidelines for Strategic Thinking or Covey's Time Management Matrix, even when they think they already have the best answer. This section explores just some of the many tools and models available, but, along with previous solution tools, it provides an excellent overview of the most productive approaches to decision making and problem solving. What is most important, however, is getting into the habit of using some deliberate, formal method of problem solving and decision making. The more complex and important an issue or problem is, the more critical using some formalized method becomes. Over half of all decision making and problem solving involves identifying the factors of a problem or an issue. A formalized procedure or method is the easiest way to discover and stay focused on all the key factors — and the best way to avoid overlooking obvious answers or pitfalls.

### PMI Scanning Approach

Edward de Bono uses a deceptively simple technique (called PMI) to explore issues and problems. He claims this method is almost unlearnable because everyone claims to use it already. However, with it he gets startling results from both senior executives and students. The PMI directional scanning technique involves looking in positive, negative, and interesting directions, but it is not just the normal listing of pros and cons. Instead, PMI focuses separate perceptional approaches toward the same subject or issue. Decision makers *scan* or *look* in just one direction at a time, going outside the usual judgment framework.

Without evaluating items, decision makers list all the **plus** points about an issue or proposal by looking **only** in the positive direction. Then they separately list the **minus** points, looking again **only** at the negative dimension. Decision makers should not combine the activities, but keep both activities separate. Finally, they list **interesting** points about the issue or proposal, features that may only emerge as a consequence of enacting or implementing the proposal or after deciding an issue one way or the another.

**PMI Directional Scanning**




De Bono illustrates the PMI technique by applying it to the suggestion that all cars be painted yellow. Some of the results follow:

**Plus**

- easier to see, especially at night
- no problems choosing which color looks good
- easier for the manufacturer to paint and keep cars in stock
- less stock for dealers
- owners might become less competitive about cars
- minor collisions with other cars would rub off the same color paint

**Minus**

- very boring
- difficult to recognize or find your car in parking lots
- makes stealing cars easier
- too much yellow might tire eyes
- accident victims would have difficulty identifying cars
- less freedom to choose
- paint companies might lose money or go out of business

**Interesting**

- interesting to see if people used different shades of yellow
- interesting to see if drivers appreciated the added safety
- interesting to see if cars became less of status symbols
- interesting to see if people started using different colors for trim
- interesting to see if yellow only could be enforced

Naturally, the categories of *plus*, *minus*, and *interesting* do assign some value to items, but these are general and may, at times, be arbitrary. What is a plus for one person may be a minus for another and so forth. However, the real point to using the PMI technique is to help decision makers apply different perspectives, creating a decision-making environment that is less emotional and more multidimensional and objective. As a result, decision makers and team members spend less time and effort rationalizing their prejudgments and defending personal opinions.

De Bono encourages executives to use the PMI technique particularly at the point that opinions begin to solidify or in team meetings when issues become emotionally charged. Because asking people to use a PMI technique on an issue or proposal does not directly challenge their opinions, the changes in perspective that the PMI process entails often initiates complete reversals of opinion in a non-confrontational way. Competing for ownership of ideas and defending opinions do not operate as strongly when decision makers use this simple change-of-perspective technique.

## Cohen's Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Techniques

In *The Art of the Leader*, Cohen divides problems into two types: problems that a leader should not attempt to solve personally, and problems that only a leader can solve. Cohen suggests that when leaders become the "problem solvers," more problems come their way. If a subordinate brings a problem to the leader, the leader needs to insist that the subordinate also bring a possible solution or recommendation. In addition, when the leader serves as the primary problem solver, it robs subordinates of valuable training and a sense of accomplishment. If subordinates do not participate in the decision-making process, they may not "buy-in" to the decision, and are less likely to support it.

Cohen outlines the following problem situations in which the leader must be the problem solver:

- Decisions about the leadership of the organization
- When a leader has unique expertise, knowledge, or experience concerning a problem
- Some emergency situations
- When it is risky for subordinates to challenge management policies

Cohen suggests three tools to help leaders solve problems: brainstorming, psychological techniques, and the Analysis of Alternatives technique.

Cohen suggests using brainstorming if:

- The group contains special expertise.
- Maximum commitment to the solution is necessary.
- The decision or problem requires a creative solution.

Identifying the available options is the first step in the process. Once all of the available options are identified, a decision-making option needs to be selected, and a decision made.

Psychological techniques refer to some well known features of creativity: the sudden appearance of solutions during "off hours" after an intense period of "problem immersion." The experience of sudden illumination after an incubation period occurs so commonly after waking, during showers, or while commuting that psychologist Margaret Boden humorously calls this illumination phase "*bed, bath, and the bus*." To use this technique, Cohen suggests first gathering as much information about a problem as possible, and then "sleeping on it" or, if time permits, putting aside the problem for a few days before returning to work on it. Frequently, a solution or new problem approach appears to the problem solver in the interim.

The military developed the Analysis of Alternatives technique in the 1890s. This technique considers major factors and compares possible solutions in six steps:

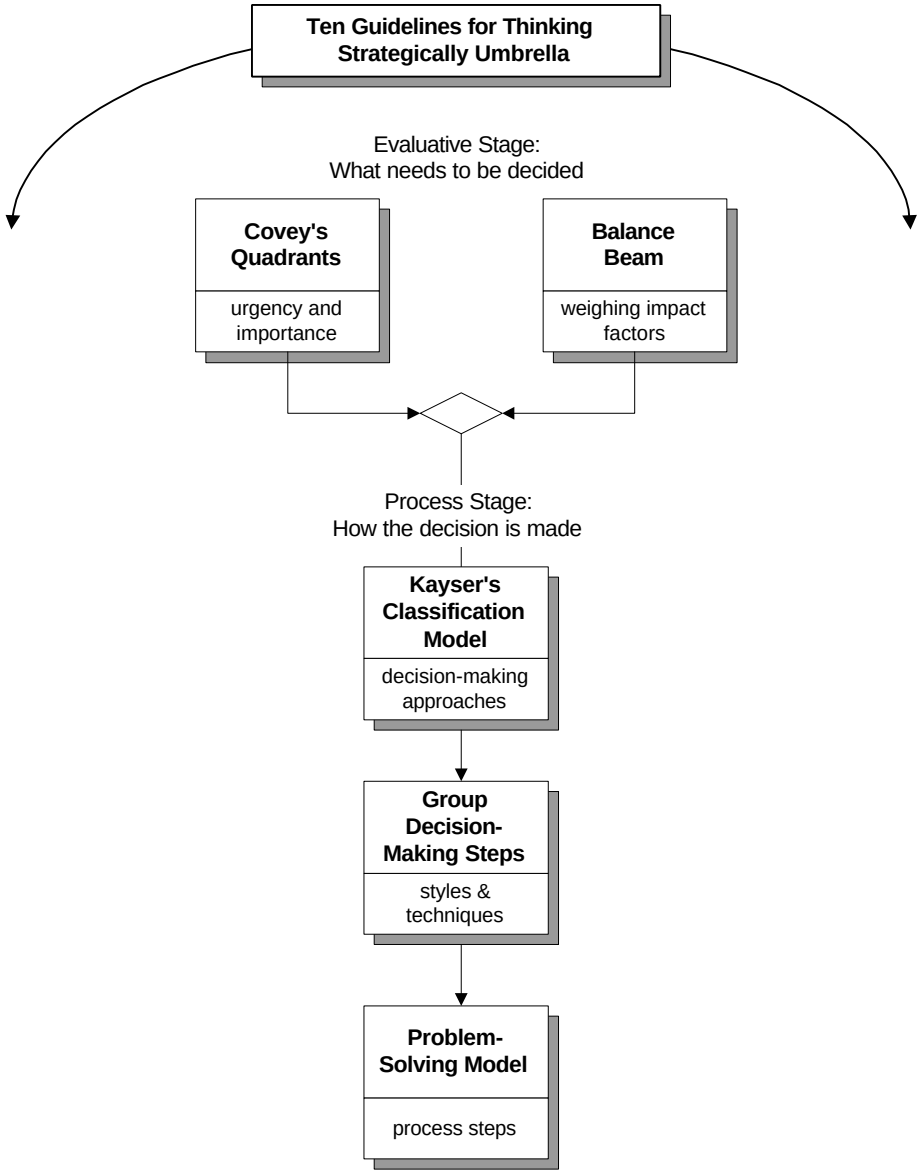
1. Define the focus of the problem and write the problem statement.
2. Determine the relevant factors.
3. Develop alternative solutions and consider the advantages and disadvantages of each.
4. Analyze and compare the merits of each alternative.
5. Draw conclusions.
6. Choose the alternative which best solves the problem.

To summarize Cohen, if the problem can best be solved by the group acting together, use brainstorming; for problems that the leader must solve, use psychological techniques or the Analysis of Alternatives technique.

## Decision-Making Models and Processes

The following diagram shows the various models and concepts that are used in the events in this unit. The Ten Guidelines for Thinking Strategically present umbrella concepts. Covey's Quadrants and the Priority Balance Beam are part of the evaluative stage of decision making. Kayser's model, the Group Decision-Making Steps, and the Problem-Solving model are aids in the "how to" stage.

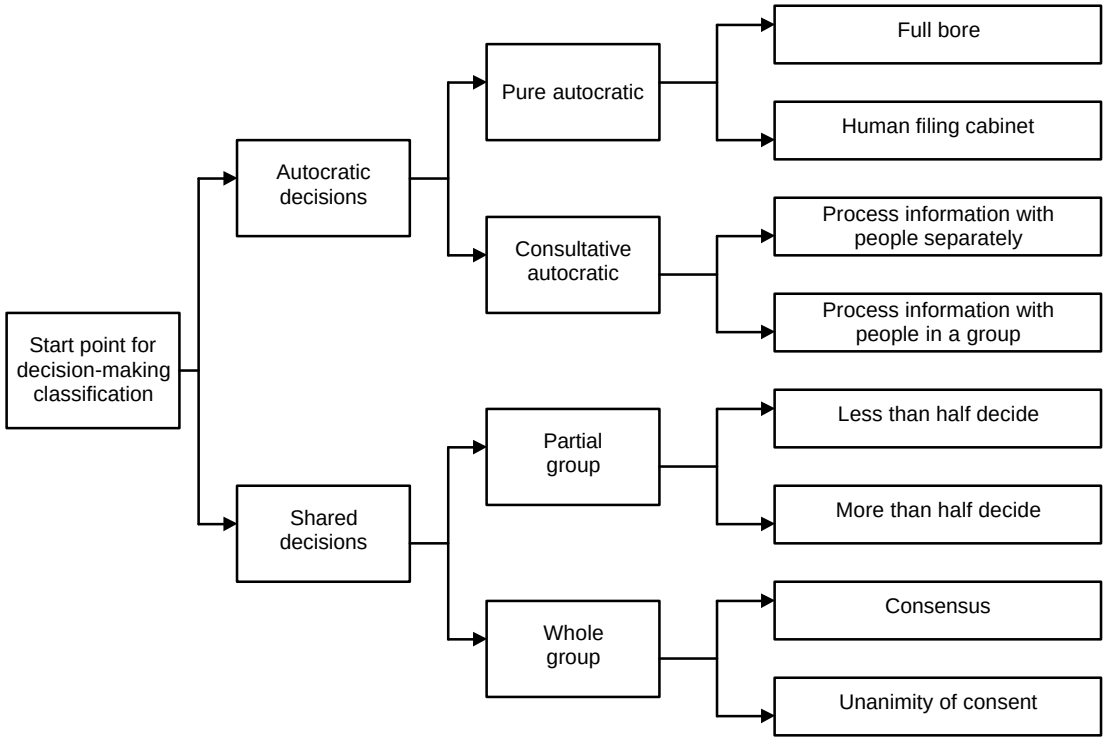
**Decision-Making Models and Processes**



## Kayser's Decision-Making Model

Kayser's model includes eight basic decision-making options, and a logical flow for choosing the appropriate decision-making option based on the specific situation. Kayser strongly cautions against making a value judgment about any of the eight options. He suggests that each has an appropriate time and place for use, and each can produce positive as well as negative consequences depending on how the model is applied within the context of a particular situation.

**Kayser's Method of Classifying Decision-Making Options**




[Derived from Kayser, T. A. (1994). *Building team power*]

As the above diagram shows, the first step in Kayser's process is classifying the problem as either autocratic or shared decision. The autocratic approach to decision making contains pure autocratic and consultative autocratic methods. For shared decisions, there are partial-group and whole-group methods.

A detailed description of Kayser's system follows:

- Pure autocratic decisions include:
  - ***Full bore*** — leader simply makes a decision and announces it.
  - ***Human filing cabinet —*** leader obtains information from employees without sharing the problem or information, using the employees as "human filing cabinets."
- Consultative autocratic decisions include:
  - ***Processing information with people separately —*** leader shares the problem with individuals one-on-one and solicits their responses, processes the information alone, makes the decision, and announces the plan.
  - ***Processing information with people in a group —*** leader shares and processes the problem with others in a group, but the leader retains final decision-making power.
- Partial-group decisions include:
  - ***Less than half decide —*** leader shares the problem with the group and facilitates discussion to process information.
  - ***More than half decide —*** leader shares the problem with the group and facilitates a period of open discussion. After the discussion, the leader polls the group and the majority decision passes.
- Whole-group decisions include:
  - ***Consensus —*** leader shares the problem with the group first and then facilitates the group members in processing information to reach a solution that everyone can support.
  - ***Unanimity of consent —*** all group members must agree with a given course of action.

Five basic forces impact which option is most appropriate concerning a specific decision. These forces include quality of the decision, acceptance of the decision, time pressure, forces within the team, and personal forces within the leader.

- If neither quality nor acceptance is important, any of the eight decision options are appropriate.
- If quality is important and acceptance is not, the consultative autocratic approaches are the most suitable options.
- If acceptance is important and quality is not, there is no best or correct solution. The effective choice is the one most desirable to the individuals involved.
- If quality and acceptance are both important, whole-group decisions are best.
- If time pressure is a consideration, the decision process is likely to shift from a more time-consuming option to a less time-consuming one. One of the four autocratic options or majority vote is most appropriate.

- If forces within the team are critical, the group's composition influences the selection of a decision-making option.
- If forces within the leader are highest priority, the leader's technical knowledge of the issue — combined with personal values, beliefs, and philosophy about leadership practices — influence the decision approach.

### Kayser's Consensus Building

The consensus option is a decision-making alternative that offers many advantages. However, consensus building is not easy, and requires additional work and time. When team members feel they personally contribute to the decision, they have greater ownership, feelings of group unity, and increased commitment to carrying out the decision.

Kayser identifies six principles for effective implementation and proper facilitation of the consensus-building process:

1. Think of consensus as "win/win," not compromise.
2. Combat the illusion of consensus (disagreement hidden in silence) — explicitly test for it.
3. Stamp out the declaration "I can live with it."
4. Develop shared values regarding consensus decision making.
5. Determine in advance a fallback decision option if consensus cannot be reached.
6. Use consensus as the process for selecting a decision option.

### Group Decision-Making Styles and Techniques

Reflective Thinking, Nominal Group Technique, and Critical Path Analysis are three styles of group decision making. Each differs across several dimensions including decision-making methodology and the circumstances that warrant its use. The table on the following page contains a summary of the Reflective Thinking, Nominal Group Technique, and Critical Path Analysis styles of decision making. Each style is listed, along with its appropriate use and application.

## Group Decision-Making Styles & Techniques

| Styles & Techniques | Description | When to Use |
|---|---|---|
| Reflective Thinking | Group members follow five steps. Some of these steps contain questions to guide decision making.<br><br>(1) Define the Difficulty: "What is a precise definition of the difficulty? What are the symptoms of the difficulty? How has the problem manifested itself? Whom does it hurt, and how does it hurt them? Under what conditions does it harm them? How big is the problem? Is it getting worse? What are the implications of the difficulty in the future? What is presently being done to meet the problem? In what ways are these efforts ineffective?"<br>(2) Analyze the Difficulty: "What causes led to the present difficulty? What conditions exist in the situation that allow the causes to act as they do? Which of these causes are major and which are secondary? What direction should our approach take? What are the requirements that a satisfactory solution must meet? Are there any 'boundaries' that a course of action must observe?"<br>(3) Suggest Possible Solutions.<br>(4) Discuss and Evaluate Solutions.<br>(5) Implement the Chosen Solution. | Team members may have biases for or against possible solutions.<br><br>It is necessary to explore each proposal methodically. |
| Nominal Group Technique (NGT) | Group members meet in a single location, but interact verbally only with an assigned group leader.<br><br>The Nominal Group Technique consists of six steps:<br>(1) silent generation of ideas,<br>(2) round-robin recording of ideas, discussion for clarification,<br>(4) preliminary vote on item importance,<br>(5) discussion of the preliminary vote, and<br>(6) final vote. | Leader feels that group discussion will lead to undesired team conflict. |

| Styles & Techniques | Description | When to Use |
|---|---|---|
| Critical Path Analysis | Group members meet to plan the implementation process by determining the critical steps necessary for implementing a solution.<br><br>(1) List activities necessary for implementing a solution to the defined problem.<br>(2) Diagram Activities: Identify paths of events that occur sequentially and simultaneously. Indicate these chains of events pictorially.<br>(3) Diagram Events: Between each activity in the activity diagram, there is an event. The first event is "start." Events are specific to the task, but can be as simple as 'completion of activity A.' Place events between activities in the activity diagram. This creates the Event Diagram.<br>(4) Create a detailed table with the listed: activity, activity duration, activity's earliest start time, activity's latest start time, activity's earliest completion time, activity's latest completion time, activity's "float" time (the amount of time that the group can delay the activity without postponing the entire implementation process). List each activity in order of the event at which they begin. Then calculate the duration and each of the listed times for each activity.<br>(5) Using the created table, identify the activities that have zero float time. These activities make up the critical path. This means that the group cannot allow delay of any of these activities. | Team members identify implementation path and flow. |

## Avoiding Groupthink

Closely related to Kayser's recommendations for combating the illusion of consensus are efforts to avoid groupthink. Strong group cohesion is usually highly desirable and teams that function with a great deal of enthusiasm and cooperation often achieve amazing results. But the downside to great teams and spirited groups is the serious danger of groupthink. Pressures to please the group and defend the group against "outsiders" and "outside" values can lead to terrible decisions with disastrous results. Textbook cases include the Kennedy Administration's determination to invade Cuba, the Nixon Administration's cover-up of the Watergate burglary, and NASA's decision to override negative feedback and launch Challenger in 1986.

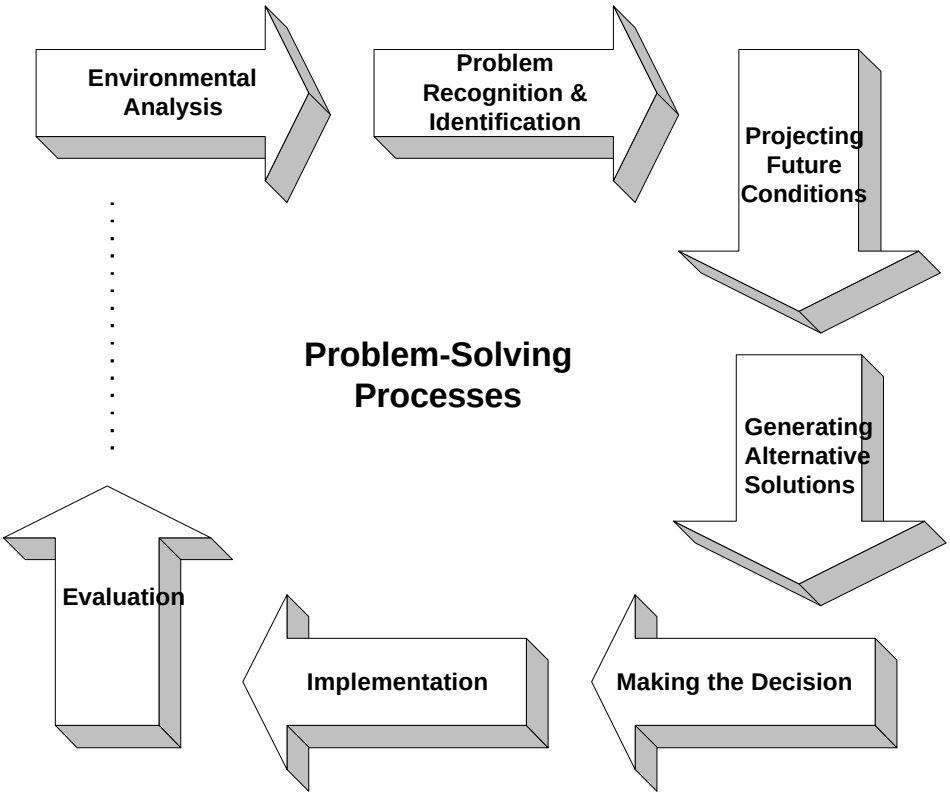
Unless a group leader maintains an impartial, unbiased, and critical attitude toward decision making, groups may use their creative resources to rationalize only those problem solutions considered "acceptable" by the leader or by key members of the group. Some teams may feel "beyond criticism" and so superior to other teams or groups that they start believing in their own invulnerability. Under pressures for conformity and maintaining group identity, groups may reduce external groups and opposing viewpoints to basic stereotypes — as too evil, weak, or stupid to deal with.

By encouraging critical thinking and assigning deliberate "devil's advocate" roles to group members, senior leaders and managers can prevent the illusion of unanimity, the self-censorship, the elitism, and the self-righteousness of groupthink. Leaders must also be willing to bring the "outside" and outside opinion into their inner circles.

## Problem Solving

Problem solving and decision making are closely associated activities, but treating them separately is generally helpful. Presented on the following page is a useful model for problem solving, which subsumes analysis, setting priorities, decision making, implementation, and evaluation.

## PROBLEM SOLVING




These seven steps or stages are a convenient way to view the parts of the problem-solving process in organizations:

1. **Environmental Analysis** — Discovering challenges and opportunities for development result from frequently monitoring the task environment. Changes in internal and external organizational contexts often impact activities and opportunities for improvement — and require analysis.
2. **Problem Recognition and Identification** — Fully defining problems helps to create solution approaches. Strong problem solvers specify as many features of a problem as possible. Covey's Time Management Matrix is also one tool to help decide whether or not to recognize a problem as an organizational priority.
3. **Projecting Future Conditions** — Problem recognition leads almost immediately to assumptions about future conditions. Senior leaders and managers need to carefully examine and formally list those assumptions likely to impact solutions. Projecting from past events alone is usually not adequate.

4. **Generating Alternative Solutions** — Well-known and past solutions are good places to begin looking for solutions, but new options and ideas require creative thinking. The use of brainstorming or borrowing ideas through analogy and metaphor usually applies in cases where problems need innovative solutions. Leaders can also develop contingency plans based on alternative futures from #3.
5. **Making the Decision** — Once alternative solutions are available, problem solvers use decision-making tools such as Cohen's and Kayser's to systemically decide which approach to take. Projecting results for all alternative solutions helps determine the best choice — and whether or not to combine solutions.
6. **Implementation** — Taking action by setting specific goals and deadlines, gaining support, and putting people and systems in place are a series of problems in themselves. This stage is usually the most difficult and requires perseverance. However, without implementation the other steps are academic exercises.
7. **Evaluation** — This final stage measures the appropriateness of solutions and their implementation. Were goals met? What expectations were accurate? How well did assumptions hold up? What degree of quantitative and qualitative success did the solution produce? Both success and failure naturally lead to a new Environmental Analysis, the beginning of the problem-solving process.

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# UNIT 4: BUSINESS AND PROGRAM OPERATIONS
# "YOU'RE THE MAESTRO"

## LESSON 1
## Planning: "Writing the Score"

### Strategic Planning Issues

Strategic planning is a powerful organizational tool, but most organizations do not get to fully implement their strategic plans or the plans quickly become bureaucratic or outdated — and, therefore, strategic planning often fails. Organizational planners list 10 reasons why strategic planning efforts **do not** succeed:

1. **Projecting the future from past patterns** — simply extrapolating from historical data does not usually work in a complex and dynamic environment.
2. **Planning as a one-time event or a limited series of actions** — using a one-shot approach or the snapshot view of reality ignores the pace of change and how people learn in a rapidly changing environment.
3. **Reacting to the environment in a linear way instead of interacting with it** — assuming that a needs analysis of the environment tells us everything we need to do, ignoring opportunities to initiate broad changes.
4. **Piecemeal and fragmented approaches to change** — ignoring the types of creative problem solving that systems thinking demands.
5. **Overcontrol vs. autonomous bodies** — using plans to control people, preempting their learning and creativity, or, on the other hand, diffusing authority so that no one has responsibility for implementation.
6. **Lack of participation and commitment** — not promoting broad participation in planning so that customers, partners, and other stakeholders lack both the commitment and the context to solve implementation problems.
7. **Position protection and passivity** — allowing defensive norms and position protection to act as barriers to change, with staff members not taking responsibility for the development of the organization as a whole.
8. **Information overload** — distributing too much hard data that is summarized to the point of uselessness, obscuring the meaning of the information, and ignoring valuable soft data.
9. **One-shot vision statements** — forgetting that vision must evolve over time and become embodied by the entire organization.
10. **Detached leadership** — becoming almost invisible and refusing to directly collaborate with and empower staff so that plans have few or no hands-on advocates.

## Effective Strategic Planning

Visions of the future need to be in balance with the hard facts of the present, and creativity must complement the need for control. At the same time, careful preparation has to allow flexibility for rapidly and effectively responding to sudden change. And more and more, stakeholders need to provide their input into the planning process.

How does a leader incorporate so many complex and conflicting factors into strategic planning? Step 1 is a component analysis.

Step 1 — Component Analysis for Strategic Planning

A thorough component analysis is the first step in any planning process. What are the "must do's" right now? What are the "need to do's" in the near term and far future? What must leadership do to survive in the short term? What needs to be changed for future survival of the entire organization? What are the relationships between short-term goals and long-term objectives? While senior leaders may need to generate preliminary answers to these questions, a comprehensive list of immediate and long-range organizational needs can only come by including information from stakeholders. And to some degree, any list of components must always remain provisional. Some common areas to investigate when creating the preliminary components list include:

- **Organization Culture and Climate** — what is it now and how does it need to change? How might it change?
- **Technological Competence —** is it adequate now? Could a technological change disrupt operations?
- **Staff Morale —** is it suffering as a result of downsizing, budget cuts, or other disruptions? What can be done to improve poor morale or to sustain good morale?
- **Staff Perception of Leadership —** do staff trust the judgment of leadership at all levels? If not, how can trust be established?
- **Regulatory, Law, and Bylaw Changes —** what legal or organizational rule changes impact the functioning of the staff or change its responsibilities now or in the future?
- **Training Needs —** what are the immediate and long-term training needs of the staff? How soon can training begin? Are there mentoring opportunities?
- **Organizational Weaknesses —** what are the glaring organizational weaknesses and how do they relate to more subtle ones? Are weaknesses actually resulting from some organizational strengths?
- **External Threats —** what external processes, trends, or groups threaten the organization? What changes need to be made to protect the organization's integrity and functioning?
- **Customer Service Orientation —** is the organization customer focused? If not, what steps need to be taken to make it so?

- **Financial Responsibilities —** are budgetary and financial management plans aligned with the organization's mission and vision? Are all financial transactions, investments, and arrangements clearly documented and tracked?
- **Organizational Strengths —** is everyone aware of the organization's strengths? Are staff members kept aware of accomplishments?
- **Communication** — how well do leaders and staff members interact and share vital information?

Step 2 — Who Are the Stakeholders?

Staff, partners, vendors, customers, and contractors have the raw data leaders need to help create effective plans. Once senior leaders decide on what component areas need to be part of their strategic planning, it is time to create a list of stakeholders and begin surveying them. Anyone that has an interest or "stake" in the organization's future is a stakeholder. At first, leaders must consider everyone:

1. Personnel
   - U.S. Direct Hires (FS and GS perspectives)
   - U.S. Personal Services Contractors
   - Foreign Service Direct Hires
   - Foreign Service Personal Services Contractors
   - Others
2. Ultimate customers
3. Host country government officials and departments
4. Internal customers
5. NGOs and PVOs
6. Contractors
7. Other partners
8. Congress
9. DOS
10. Other agencies and international organizations

Step 3 — Surveying the Stakeholders

Unless the list of stakeholders is small, leaders can usually only survey a sample of the stakeholders. If possible, leaders should survey at least one stakeholder from each category with about a dozen questions that relate to the components identified earlier. However, if new, important components arise in the course of survey activities, leaders need to add those new components to their questionnaire or list of informal questions.

The survey can be formal or informal, but the same component areas need to be covered. If component questions change, some stakeholders may need to be re-surveyed.

Step 4 — Compiling and Sharing Information

Though survey answers and other feedback from stakeholders need to be summarized, leaders should remember to preserve the meaning of the data. By sharing preliminary reports with those surveyed, leaders can make adjustments to their reports based on feedback. Senior leaders can then share the results of the surveys with the broader group and begin to organize a strategic planning team.

Step 5 — Organizing the Strategic Planning Team

Sometimes, the survey activity itself helps to generate a list of team members for a strategic planning team. Based on responses, senior leaders can often tell which staff members, partners, or customers have strong interests in strategic planning — and, therefore, an invitation to them to join such a team is a natural result. At other times, an open invitation or the use of some selection process may be necessary. But the key to a successful team is good representation and participation — even when the strategic planning team's function involves only implementation of previously conceived plans. Senior leaders must decide before the formation of such teams what their scope should be. Is this only an advisory group, generating strategic approaches and ideas or is it a body whose results are to be implemented? In many organizations, the actual nuts and bolts of budgets, resource allocation, and staffing can only be finalized by senior management so that a strategic planning team's function is to make the broadest recommendations with only preliminary details. However, the closer the team members are to the action of implementation, the better the plans actually work.

Step 6 — Activities of the Strategic Planning Team

Because strategic planning has a long-term focus and is itself a long-term process, strategic planning teams must be long term as well. Though members may change, the team itself needs to meet regularly for the entire period of the planning implementation period. Team members need to help adjust plans as parameters change.

After establishing ground rules for decision making and functioning, most strategic planning teams start by generating a list of factors and people directly impacting the component areas identified earlier. Usually teams also help develop graphical representations that depict the relationship of key people, political influences, and other factors that may impact the types of changes needed. Teams, for example, also detail the types of support such changes require — and from which people or other agencies support must come. Some teams begin by creating timelines starting from the beginning of the organization up through the present and projecting 5, 10, or more years into the future. Eventually, teams create frameworks for strategic plans and establish measurable objectives and monitoring procedures that relate directly to organizational goals for

change. The most successful strategic planning teams remember to avoid the 10 reasons for failure cited earlier.

Step 7 — Opportunities to Change the Strategic Plan

No matter how good strategic planning is; no matter how many graphs, reports, and lists teams and senior leaders generate, the ongoing evolving reality must take priority over any plan or implementation framework. Although senior leaders need to follow a fully articulated strategic plan, they must actively seek opportunities to use changing circumstances to initiate changes and improvements to the strategic plan.

## Blueprinting

Sometimes the quickest way to get an overview of a complex operation and to find out what inputs are the most important for planning is to create a visual representation of a particular service system — usually called *blueprinting*. Leaders start with an overall visual blueprint and work their way down to the smallest details, including resources, information flow, and people. Points of interaction and areas of concern usually emerge quickly. Well-developed blueprints can also serve as communication and training vehicles for staff. Blueprinting helps leaders avoid piecemeal thinking and overlooking vital inputs as they plan.

Naturally, in international development work strategic planning takes place at various levels simultaneously, from the Department of State down to the SO Team level. Therefore, all these guidelines and approaches need appropriate adjustments when working on Agency, regional, country, and operational unit levels.

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## LESSON 2
## Achieving Results: "Conducting the Orchestra"

> [The senior leader] is like a symphony orchestra conductor, endeavoring to maintain a melodious performance… while the orchestra members are having various personal difficulties, stage hands are moving music stands, alternating excessive heat and cold are creating audience instrument problems, and the sponsor of the concert is insisting on irrational changes in the program. (Sayles, *Managerial Behavior: Administration in Complex Organizations*, 1964)

### Conducting the Orchestra

Comparing conducting an orchestra to organizational leadership may seem peculiar, but there are many parallels. For example, Mintzberg points out that "as knowledge work has grown in importance — and as more and more work is done by trained and trusted professionals — the way [a conductor] leads the orchestra may illustrate a good deal of what today's managing is all about." The various constraints within which an orchestra conductor works relate to a common predicament among organizational leaders — not having absolute control of others nor being completely powerless, but functioning somewhere in between.

### GPRA

In crafting the Government Performance and Results Act (GPRA), Congress recognized that governmental decision making had been severely hampered by the absence, in many agencies, of the basic underpinnings of well-managed private organizations — such as an emphasis on outcomes rather than inputs. GPRA's focus is on results. GPRA seeks to promote better integration of key management activities including planning, budgeting, achieving results, evaluation, and accountability. Human resource management is also an integral part of each of these activities.

Starting in FY 1999, government agencies moved from strategic planning and performance plan development as mandated by GPRA to the "stand and deliver" stage where performance results are tallied and resources allocated accordingly. As USAID and other government agencies enter the final stages of GPRA implementation, they are increasingly accountable for demonstrating that they are achieving desired results. The big question on leaders' minds across government is "How do we get the results we're accountable for?" Government leaders must understand that:

- a carefully crafted, highly rated strategic plan alone cannot guarantee results.
- an energized management team alone cannot meet an agency's performance targets.
- investments in technology and other infrastructure alone will not enhance productivity.

Effective management of Agency development and humanitarian assistance programs and resources requires an emphasis on achieving results through team effort and customer focus. Key principles of achieving results for USAID senior leaders are:

- Ensuring that the efforts of the Agency's operation units are directed toward achieving significant development impact in priority areas through a participatory process involving stakeholders, partners, and customers
- Providing a supportive environment that allows operating units to make program choices and effectively respond to evolving circumstances
- Emphasizing the attainment of results
- Identifying and meeting customer needs
- Providing a significant level of empowerment and accountability for staff closest to the development and humanitarian issues addressed
- Promoting the regular collection and review of performance data and information resulting in the continuous improvement of the implementation of development assistance; the effectiveness of management decisions and processes; the means by which the Agency learns through its experience; and the ability of the Agency to meet accountability and reporting requirements

Leadership in government organizations is increasingly challenging as the requirements for accountability, streamlined operations, and greater organizational flexibility have multiplied, and available resources have decreased for most agencies. USAID, like other agencies, is evolving from a static, inflexible, federal bureaucracy to a diverse workforce of permanent, temporary, part-time, and contract workers (many of whom do not see government as their lifetime employer). Management in this more fluid, results-oriented workplace requires leadership and facilitation, rather than direction and control. This reality requires senior leaders to use new approaches for achieving results. For staff to focus on the outcomes of their performance that link to achieving, senior leaders must:

- Help staff fully understand the standards for performance
- Actively involve them in measuring how well they are meeting those standards
- Consistently hold them responsible for finding ways to improve personal and organizational performance

## Managing Limited Resources

Senior leaders need to budget and use resources wisely. Problems often result when limited resources are spread too thinly. Ineffective leaders often try to respond to too many requests for assistance and satisfy too many agendas. So it is necessary to occasionally say 'no' to requests for assistance when resources are not available. Other times, resources available are not used appropriately. According to Pareto, 20% of allocated resources produce 80% of results achieved (the Pareto Principle). Leaders must diagnose whether or not they are assigning valuable resources to non-critical tasks.

Several techniques for this type of diagnosis were presented in Unit 3 (e.g., Covey's Time Management Matrix, De Bono's PMI Scanning Approach, Priority Balance Beam). An additional diagnostic process — combining previous approaches — operationalizes the Pareto principle:

1. Make a list of work activities that use your resources.
2. Put a "C" (Critical) next to tasks that are of high value to the operating unit.
3. Attempt to limit the number of activities labeled "C" to no more than 20% of the total.
4. Put an "R" (Routine) next to the remaining tasks.
5. Evaluate whether most of the available resources are going towards critical tasks and adjust accordingly.

There are never enough resources for every potential activity, so it is important to allocate resources according to priorities. Considering the impact and urgency of tasks helps leaders make good allocation decisions. When new activities present themselves, leaders must always ask, "Will this help my operating unit achieve results and meet its goals?"

**Political Sensibilities**

The role of politics is inevitable in the Agency's attempts to achieve results. Keeping political sensibilities in mind, leaders should make every effort to obtain support and understanding of the Agency's goals, strategies, and mission. Senior leaders must be savvy by:

- Demonstrating the ability to speak the right language
- Showing awareness of the Agency's political culture
- Understanding the concerns of those who have an interest in the Agency's foreign assistance work

Effective senior leaders realize the need to address the political interests of stakeholders and partners in foreign countries and domestic relations to achieve sustainable results. They understand the importance of titles, roles, and positions in political organizations (including USAID), and how political agendas may affect the Agency's culture. As introduced in Unit 2, effective leaders understand how Congress, interest groups, outside organizations, host country officials and ministries' perspectives influence the way operating units achieve results, and how to work within political constraints and opportunities to fulfill work objectives.

## Using the "Balanced Scorecard" to Achieve Results

Consistent with the Agency's reengineered philosophy, the balanced scorecard, developed by Kaplan and Norton, looks at results from multiple perspectives, rather than from the traditional, single "bottom line" measure. Kaplan and Norton recognize that performance results are not one-dimensional — there are multiple perspectives to consider including:

- Financial perspective — the bottom line results achieved
- Internal business perspective — the effectiveness of key internal processes
- Customer perspective — focus on customer needs and satisfaction
- Learning and growth perspective — how the organization invests in and supports its human resources

Government organizations are increasingly using the balanced scorecard approach to evaluate their measures (indicators) to focus on long-term results. As described by Kaplan and Norton, using various measures to assess results achievements is analogous to the dials and gauges on an instrument panel of an airplane. Concentrating on only certain instruments (e.g., the altimeter) without considering other measures of performance leaves out critical information needed to keep the plane flying. USAID leaders should consider using the balanced scorecard approach when appraising and communicating the achievements of their own operational units since results should not be tied only to traditional bottom line measures.

## Supporting Results Achievement of SO Teams

Senior leaders must support the work of SO teams in their operating units. Following are some of the leadership characteristics needed to specifically support the work of SO teams:

- Creative leadership to initiate and advance organizational change and overcome bureaucratic inertia
- Willingness to work in a team-based environment that demands flexibility
- Ability to delegate authorities and streamline the processes for funds transfers
- Knowledge on a range of implementation procedures
- Capability and willingness to provide key support services to implementing partners as appropriate
- Technical and managerial capacity to monitor activity progress and to help identify and resolve problems

It is important to remember that the SO team members are responsible for coordinating the daily conduct and management of activities. They interact with partners, and perform site visits and inspections as appropriate. It is also the responsibility of SO teams to keep

senior leaders informed of any significant problem areas that could impede results achievement.

**Training as a Factor in Achieving Results**

In their report "Getting Results Through Learning," the Federal Human Resource Council indicates training as a necessary component of achieving results:

> Learning must be strategically managed to achieve the objectives of the organization and ensure the full utilization of the workforce. Particularly in times of constrained resources, training dollars must be targeted for the biggest payoffs.

In the private sector, corporations that make a significant commitment to staff training are realizing significant increases in achievement of results. Like their corporate counterparts, government agencies now face the turbulence of reengineering, downsizing, and loss of talented, knowledgeable workers to retirement. Since training is an essential process in achieving results, USAID senior leaders must continually assess their own staffs' training needs and support the Agency's commitment to being a learning organization.

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## LESSON 3
## Assessing and Learning: "Critiquing the Performance"

> Not everything important can be measured, and not everything that can be measured is important. (Albert Einstein)

The Agency recently adopted the term "Assessing and Learning" as a general way to discuss Monitoring and Evaluation. In the past, USAID personnel experienced confusion as to what activities were included under the terms "Monitoring" and "Evaluation." Some of the confusion originated from attempts to understand the differences between monitoring Strategic Objectives and Intermediate Results and the lower level monitoring of activities and contracts.

The term Assessing and Learning repositions the focus and importance of Monitoring and Evaluation on the activities necessary to effectively use information to guide the planning and achievement of USAID goals rather than on documents used to collect this information. For purposes of this pre-work lesson, these terms ("monitoring and evaluation" & "assessing and learning") are used interchangeably.

### Comparing Monitoring and Evaluation

Any organizational effort, implementation, or intervention requires monitoring and evaluation. How else can leaders know exactly what is happening and to what degree operating units are achieving results? Although there are always concerns about the validity and reliability of indicator measures, most successful organizations rely on two general types of assessment: *implementation feedback (i.e., continuous monitoring)* and *evaluation feedback (i.e., evaluation of negative or positive results)*. Implementation feedback provides ongoing information to help guide actions as plans go into effect. It also monitors assumptions and hypotheses inherent in these plans — helping to determine whether corrective actions are needed before efforts stray off course. Evaluation feedback (evaluation) assesses the factors involved that lead to outcome results (either negative or positive results). However, both monitoring and evaluation include measures of customer satisfaction, cost effectiveness, and overall efficiency of operations.

Evaluation feedback normally includes implementation feedback measures but also gathers data such as unexpected costs and changes in employee and customer perceptions. As much as possible, senior leaders need to share such feedback with their staff and with stakeholders (including Congress) and customers as an ongoing effort to improve performance.

To operate efficiently, organizations often institutionalize the frequency of their measurements and evaluations (e.g., USAID's annual R4 reporting requirements) — and seek additional meaningful feedback information as they communicate results to customers, stakeholders, and staff. Whenever possible, even non-profit organizations try to determine the cost effectiveness of their efforts by calculating the costs in understandable units, such as the cost per family served or the cost of producing some

quantity of value (e.g., a case of medical supplies). By using easy-to-understand measures, employees and customers can quickly gage the impact and efficiency of the organization's efforts — and assess their relationships to those efforts.

### When Things Go Wrong

Leaders need to communicate the system of performance monitoring and evaluation that their organization uses to staff, customers, stakeholders, and partners to gain their trust, buy-in, and critical feedback. However, not all progress is easily measurable, and everyone needs to be aware of the limitations of measurement. Qualitative indicators are sometimes much more important measures of success than quantitative ones.

Senior leaders can sometimes fail by not paying close enough attention to quality when they:

- Are too preoccupied with conforming to specifications rather than focusing on fitness for use.
- Are more concerned with methods and procedures than what is right for their operation.
- Become insulated and ignore critical feedback from the task environment.
- Lack familiarity with or have trouble coping with the subtle signs of organizational culture.
- Fail to relate individual activities to the broader picture.
- Focus on inputs rather than results.
- Commit to achieving results outside of their organization's management interests.

Zemke believes that a critical measure of an organization is how it responds when things begin to go wrong. How a leader responds to an unexpected event that affects customers and stakeholders may affect all future relations with those groups. Some good questions to ask when things go wrong (or before they go wrong) include the following:

- How does the host country, U.S. public, and Congress view the organization? What is its image? How does its image affect staff morale?
- Are customers and partners a part of the assessment process?
- Are employee retention rates good?
- Do employee development and training efforts eventually benefit the customers and lead to desired results?
- Could better assessing and learning efforts have caught problems in enough time to avoid the current situation?

Tripwires and Triggers

A common monitoring technique is use of *tripwires* or *trigger* measures — simple indicators that signal that something unusual (typically, but not always, substandard activity performance) needs special attention. They allow the operating unit to ask "why" something happened the way it did. Senior leaders set up such devices by conferring with staff, partners, and customers — first to determine the acceptable range of results, and then how and when to report events out of the range. For example, if in the average month a village medical center usually serves 25 families but suddenly the number climbs to 50 or drops to 5, that is a trigger (or tripwire) for investigation.

## Why Should Senior Leaders Use Assessing and Learning?

When operating units incorporate effective assessing and learning practices into their day-to-day operations, they greatly increase their ability to achieve results. Some of the benefits of effectively monitoring and evaluating activities include:

- Operating units can continually revisit their original development hypotheses and determine if they remain valid.
- Based on quality monitoring data, operating units can accurately predict their current course and determine if they are on track or if they should make adjustments.
- Assessing and learning can provide important information on the impact of activities on customers, changes in customer needs, and the addition of new customers.
- Assessing and learning can provide important information on key partner activities that affect USAID strategies as well as determine the best ways to maximize partnerships.
- Missions and USAID as a whole increase their institutional knowledge by collecting assessing and learning data and can use this information for future activities.
- Assessing and learning can increase USAID's ability to grow as a learning organization that continually adapts and improves as a result of its learning experiences.
- Assessing and learning can provide rich, descriptive informative to help persuade Congress and AID/W to continue funding successful or high-potential SOs, programs, and activities.

## Using Benchmarking to Prevent Assessing and Learning Distortions

Highly cohesive operating units sometimes suffer from a form of groupthink and often overrate their unit's overall results achievement. One effective way to combat evaluation distortion is to use benchmarking — actually determine the performance methods, measures, and results of similar organizations for comparison. Senior leaders in USAID, for example, might look at the results and methods of other international development

organizations, such as the World Health Organization or the World Bank, as well as those of other U.S. agencies and multinational corporations. What are those organizations measuring that USAID might measure as well? What are they doing that might become a task for USAID?

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# UNIT 5: EMPOWERMENT AND ACCOUNTABILITY
# "EMPOWERING WITH CONFIDENCE"

Note that throughout this unit teams are the focus when discussing issues pertaining to empowerment and managing risk. However, the content does not to just apply to teams, but also to individuals.

## What is Empowerment?

One day, a few senior leaders met to discuss empowerment. The first senior leader exclaimed, "If you have a well defined process where the variances are small and the operating limits are well defined, you no longer need the old command-and-control approach. Teams are now empowered, provided they respect the process." The second senior leader agreed that these "processes are liberating," while the third senior leader observed that many teams have a tough time understanding what it means for processes to be "reliable, respectable, and in control."

Based on the scenario above, how can there be empowerment when there is neither guesswork nor challenges – when the job requirements are predetermined and the processes are controlled? This is not empowerment!

Empowerment is simply granting a team the autonomy to assume more responsibility within an organization, strengthening their sense of effectiveness. An enabling process increases intrinsic task motivation, accountability, and self-efficacy. To empower, the following factors must be present:

- A shared vision
- A supportive climate
- A communication system for information sharing
- Employee and team competence
- Employee and team accountability
- Employee and team commitment
- Shared control and expanded autonomy

## Shared Vision

Do not underestimate the role of a compelling vision in an empowered workplace. Sharing a vision is the first step toward empowerment. As discussed in Unit 1, vision provides a team with that sense of "what do we do next," which can inspire creativity. It allows the team to make decisions that are in the desired direction of the organization. Use the following guidelines to assist the process of team empowerment:

- *Articulate a clear and appealing vision* — to help the team to understand purpose, objectives, and priorities. Communicate vision in a variety of ways (e.g., speeches, meetings, newsletters, individual letters, and memorandums).
- *Explain how to attain the vision* — to make a clear link between the vision and a credible strategy for attaining it.
- *Act confident and optimistic* — by being positive about the likely success of reaching objectives, especially in the face of temporary roadblocks and setbacks.
- *Express confidence in the team* — to increase team motivation and confidence in its ability to achieve objectives.
- *Provide opportunity for early successes* — by making sure the team experiences successful progress in the early phases of an activity or project. This will prevent team discouragement and pessimism. Break up challenging tasks into small reachable steps or short-term goals.
- *Celebrate success* — by using informal ceremonies (e.g., recognition among superiors) or formal ceremonies (e.g., recognition in view of employee's team or organization) to acknowledge accomplishments and foster optimism, commitment, and identification with the organizational unit.
- *Lead by example* — also known as role modeling, assists in setting standards for the team to evaluate their own performance and adopt behaviors valued within the organization. This is important because senior leaders are always in the spotlight and are carefully examined by employees.
- *Empower the team to achieve the vision* — by delegating authority to make decisions on how to implement strategies or attain goals.

**Supportive Climate**

A supportive organizational climate allows empowerment to flourish and grow. To create a supportive climate, senior leaders must:

- Clearly describe the jobs of the team, and how they fit in and contribute to the larger process. The team must be clear on its accountabilities and its responsibilities.
- Describe the latitude and discretion the team has in the job, especially as it relates to making improvements and satisfying internal or external customers' needs. Expand the latitude to the maximum extent possible to allow the team to acknowledge their boundaries for decision making.
- Provide the team with the authority it needs to do the job well.
- Help the team view its job in a context, which includes the value of contributions, made to the organization as a whole, to customers, to society, etc.
- Ensure the team can do its job by providing training, instructions, tools and equipment, and a physical environment conducive to successfully completing their tasks.

- Ensure the team has ongoing information to monitor performance (individual overall results performance), and the authority to take corrective action or raise concerns.
- Do not punish the team for well-considered risk taking. Use these as opportunities for learning.
- Create an environment where honesty prevails and where the team feels comfortable discussing how their organizational processes are really working.
- Foster open, honest, and genuine communication. Communication aimed at pleasing the boss at the cost of achieving results should be discouraged.

### System for Information Sharing

Information is the gateway to power and the lifeblood of empowerment. It enhances an individual's ability to make and influence decisions that appropriately align with the organization's goals and mission. Additionally, research reveals that people who have information about current team performance levels will set challenging goals, and when they achieve those goals, they will empower themselves by resetting the goals at a higher level. The key is to share information with everyone that needs to know in order to perform. A team without information cannot act responsibly.

### Employee and Team Competence

In order to implement team empowerment, the team must be capable of success. It does not make sense to empower a team to make decisions, approve decisions, or initiate action if they do not have proper training. Training prepares people for collaboration and higher-level performance. Furthermore, training is not a one-time event, but part of the continuous process of empowerment. Senior leaders must consistently apply coaching to support team empowerment. The team's readiness will determine the level of coaching required. Thus, as the level of empowerment increases, the more likely the need for team training.

To implement empowerment successfully, place resources under the empowered team's control. Nothing is more demotivating or disempowering than for a team to stop in their tracks because they lack the resources necessary to succeed.

### Accountability

Accountability means having the authority to act, and fully accepting the responsibility and consequences for the results of those actions. Team accountability focuses on the team rather than the individual level. This means that the members of the team feel mutually accountable to each other and that the team as a whole — not any one or two individuals within it — accepts responsibility for the results of the team's actions.

Many teams do their best to avoid accountability because leaders tend to use it as ammunition for blame or punishment. The truth is that accountability is unavoidable. Rather than a negative force, research indicates holding people accountable for their results has very positive effects. It provides greater accuracy of work, better response to role obligations, more vigilant problem solving, better decision making, more cooperation with coworkers, and higher team satisfaction — in short, higher overall performance. In addition, if the team succeeds, it should receive the appropriate recognition and rewards. Similarly, if it fails, the team should clearly know this, understand what went wrong, learn from it, and take appropriate action to prevent it from happening again.

To be effective at fostering team and/or individual accountability, use the following three basic principles:

- *Focus* — The team must clearly understand the tasks and management's expectations.
- *Influence* — The team must have power over both their own work processes and those of other team members.
- *Consequences* — There should be natural and logical consequences for all actions.

## Commitment

There are two kinds of commitment: external and internal. Both are valuable in the workplace, but only internal commitment reinforces empowerment. External commitment forms when leaders define work conditions. The commitment is external because a team is only to fulfill the leaders outlined expectation. The team will not feel responsible under such controlled work situations. The team commits to a particular project, person, or program based on their reasons and motivations. The more the team is involved to defining work objectives, methodology, and targets, the more internal commitment the team will have.

## Control

One of the common concerns leaders have about team empowerment is whether it means relinquishing all their own authority. Sharing control does not diminish power as if it were a zero-sum commodity. It expands power. Leaders who practice empowerment are still responsible for setting direction for their team or ensuring that direction is set in a participative fashion. Furthermore, leaders do not simply turn over power to employees without first ensuring they have the necessary information, skills, and abilities to make decisions. Leaders still:

- Know what is going on.
- Set or communicate the direction for the unit.
- Make decisions a team cannot make.

- Ensure the team is on-track.
- Offer guidance and provide room to allow the team to accomplish tasks.
- Ensure the team has the necessary skills to assume greater autonomy and responsibility.
- Ensure the team has the necessary information to make good decisions.
- Assess performance.

A prerequisite for sharing control is trust. Once the leader assures the team has the skills, abilities, and dedication to make decisions and perform its tasks, trust develops. However, the leader must be able to let go and give the team the opportunity to prove their competence and commitment in order to gain leadership trust.

**Autonomy**

Effective leaders create autonomy through boundaries. When the team understands the boundaries, it is then free to act within those boundaries; it can bring its own creativity to bear on the task at hand, and perhaps improve its effectiveness. While the team has autonomy, it needs to be aware of the boundaries of its decision-making discretion. Setting clear boundaries tells the team what it is authorized to do within their power.

**Teams**

Team empowerment involves a switch from power-dependence relationships to those based on influence and interdependence. Teams are given authority and responsibility for operating decisions such as setting performance goals and quality standards, assigning work, determining work schedules, determining work procedures, gathering team resources, and handling performance problems of individual members. Considerations for empowering teams and managing risk are similar. However, there are some exceptions, such as team accountability versus individual accountability. Listed below are some additional considerations:

- Team members may hold different competence and commitment levels. Coaching, mentoring, and team member support can assist in increasing the diverse team member competence and commitment to an optimal balance.
- The team must divide sufficient authority among its members commensurate with assigned tasks.
- Team member's knowledge and ability to use participative decision making is pertinent to foster commitment and success.

The appropriate reward system for empowering teams is complex and requires careful consideration. Traditional reward systems make rewards contingent upon team performance. However, this may cause accountability problems, where as one team member may be slacking in performance and another may be picking up the slack. On

the other hand, team members rewarded for their individual contributions to overall team performance may encourage competition among team members. A team that can work out their own reward system based on consensus tends to create commitment and acceptance. Ideally, a team reward system should encourage members to develop the skills needed to perform different task roles. Rewards can be contingent to learning a new skill in addition to performance type rewards.

# Empowerment Assessment Guide

The Empowerment Assessment Guide is a tool to assist leaders in assessing and reducing the risks of team/individual empowerment. Remember that empowerment is a gradual process. The "Steps for Reducing Empowerment Risk" on the right side are suggested actions for increasing team/individual readiness for empowerment.

**Directions:** On the left side, rate the team/individual 'High' or 'Low' on each item in the five empowerment categories (Task Competence, Information Sharing, Performance, Commitment, and Accountability) by placing a '✓' in the appropriate box. For categories where the team/individual generally rates 'Low,' review the corresponding "Steps for Reducing Empowerment Risk" (not all steps will apply to any given situation).

| Category | Ratings | | Steps for Reducing Empowerment Risk |
|---|---|---|---|
| | High | Low | |
| **Task Competence** | | | |
| Knowledge Level | ❑ | ❑ | ➡ Determine the level of experience (if any) to gauge needed areas of training and coaching.<br>➡ Create a development plan.<br>➡ Designate technical support systems (e.g., yourself, a team member, other resources).<br>➡ Closely monitor performance and give feedback to reinforce positive outcomes and correct negative results. |
| Skill Level | ❑ | ❑ | |
| Experience Level | ❑ | ❑ | |
| **Information sharing** | | | |
| Informs others on progress toward deadlines (i.e., to team leader and/or team members) | ❑ | ❑ | ➡ Discuss policy, procedures, and available resources for information sharing.<br>➡ Communicate organizational goals, plans, successes, and failures through visible mediums.<br>➡ Evaluate oral, written, and feedback communication skills for possible training.<br>➡ Schedule frequent feedback meetings.<br>➡ Visibly communicate deadlines and expectations (e.g., a calendar or dry-erase board). |
| Willingly shares task information | ❑ | ❑ | |
| Shares organizational plans, goals, and mission | ❑ | ❑ | |

**Directions:** On the left side, rate the team/individual 'High' or 'Low' on each item by placing a '✓' in the appropriate box. For categories where the team/individual generally rates 'Low,' review the corresponding "Steps for Reducing Empowerment Risk."

| Category | Ratings | | Steps for Reducing Empowerment Risk |
|---|---|---|---|
| | High | Low | |
| **Performance** | | | |
| Plans strategically<br>Monitors performance<br>Evaluates performance<br>Reaches deadlines<br>Adjusts per feedback<br>Makes effective decisions | ❑<br>❑<br>❑<br>❑<br>❑<br>❑ | ❑<br>❑<br>❑<br>❑<br>❑<br>❑ | ➡ Assess knowledge, skills, and abilities for training.<br>➡ Ensure the team understands the task.<br>➡ Assist in planning for task completion.<br>➡ Set realistic expectations for progress.<br>➡ Train to monitor own progress, evaluate, and improve.<br>➡ Periodically confirm that feedback information is being incorporated.<br>➡ Provide decision-making models.<br>➡ Start small and gradually allow increased decision-making latitude/power. |
| **Commitment/Emotional Readiness** | | | |
| Understanding of level of authority<br>Confidence level<br>Level of active participation in team decisions<br>Level of enthusiasm<br>Alignment of personal development goals and task(s) | ❑<br>❑<br>❑<br>❑<br>❑ | ❑<br>❑<br>❑<br>❑<br>❑ | ➡ Re-introduce vision and goals.<br>➡ Clarify the team's personal development goals and values.<br>➡ Set boundaries and clarify level of authority.<br>➡ Use positive reinforcement.<br>➡ Build confidence by allowing the team to take appropriate risks.<br>➡ Encourage team members to keep pushing their comfort zones on new behaviors.<br>➡ Implement emotional support systems.<br>➡ Serve as a role model.<br>➡ Allow gradual participation in decision making and task completion methodology. (The team must be competent to handle task prior to full delegation.) |

**Directions:** On the left side, rate the team/individual 'High' or 'Low' on each item by placing a '✓' in the appropriate box. For categories where the team/individual generally rates 'Low,' review the corresponding "Steps for Reducing Empowerment Risk."

| Category | Ratings | | Steps for Reducing Empowerment Risk |
|---|---|---|---|
| | High | Low | |
| **Accountability** | | | |
| Level of previous responsibility | ❑ | ❑ | ➡ Determine level of past responsibility by investigating prior work objectives and performance measurements. |
| Acceptance of accountability | ❑ | ❑ | ➡ Increase responsibilities gradually after each success. |
| Overall performance | ❑ | ❑ | ➡ Ensure appropriate consequences of success and failure (e.g., reward, discipline, and learning from mistakes). |

## Case Study Assignment for Classroom

Develop a short (1–2 pages), personal experience case study for the "Managing Risk" lesson during Week 2, Wednesday. Your objective is to describe a personal experience pertaining to team empowerment using the following guidelines:

- Describe an experience where you empowered a team, or were part of a team that was empowered. The experience may be positive or negative.
- Describe why you empowered the team, or why you and other members were empowered.
- Describe the empowered team's objectives.
- Include the number of team selection process, team members, and their roles.
- Describe the behaviors of team members that led to the success or failure of the empowered team.
- Describe your actions to manage the team's empowerment situation and performance.

Consider the following information from the Empowerment Assessment Guide to describe your situation:

- Overall, what was the team's level of task competence (i.e., experience, skill, knowledge)?
- Were the members well-informed of tasks, deadlines, and available resources?
- Was their performance planned, monitored, and evaluated?
- What was the team's level of commitment (confidence level, participation in decision making, enthusiasm toward objective or task, alignment with organizational goals)?
- What was the level of accountability? Were members accountable? Were members responsible?
    - Was feedback given and implemented?
    - Were decisions effective?
    - Were there any problems reaching deadlines or obtaining results?

*** Please bring 5 copies to the classroom session to share with a small group during a class exercise.**

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# UNIT 6: EFFECTIVE TEAMING
# "MORE THAN JUST THE SUM OF THE PARTS"

## LESSON 1
## Team Basics: "To Team or Not to Team"

A frequently asked question is "When is the use of teams appropriate? Are there situations in which using teams will not work?" The answer is "yes." There are times that teams have failed and the cause of failure is, in some cases, directly related to the fact that a team was not appropriate for the situation. A first consideration before deciding whether to use a team is the assigned task. Factors such as quality of solution, time pressure, and acceptance of solution influence how to address the task. One of the best methods used in determining if a team is appropriate is Kayser's decision-making model introduced in Unit 3 and reviewed here.

Individual Versus Group Decision Making

The first step in the process is to classify the task by the basic decision-making approaches, which are broken out into either autocratic or shared decisions.

The autocratic approach to decision making includes:

- Pure autocratic
  - Full bore
  - Human filing cabinet
- Consultative autocratic
  - Processing information with people separately
  - Processing information with people in a group

Shared approach options include:

- Partial group
  - Less than half decide
  - More than half decide
- Whole group
  - Consensus
  - Unanimity of consent

Five basic forces impact which decision-making option is most appropriate for the task. These include quality of the decision; acceptance of the decision; time pressure; forces within the team; and personal forces within the leader.

1. Quality is important, acceptance is not — final decision has to rest with the person responsible for the activity, hence the consultative autocratic approaches are the most suitable decision options.
2. Acceptance is important, quality is not — since these high-acceptance situations have no best or correct solution, the fair, effective choice is the one most desirable to the people involved. Use of one of the whole-group options would be the most fitting; an alternate might be open team discussion followed by a majority vote.
3. Quality and acceptance are both important — to optimize both dimensions, use the whole-group decision options of consensus or unanimity of consent.
4. Time pressure — when urgency figures in decision making, the decision process is likely to shift from a more time-consuming option to a less time-consuming one. One of the four autocratic options or majority vote is appropriate to use.
5. Forces within the team — thinking about the team's composition will influence the selection of a decision-making option.
6. Forces within the leader — the leader's technical knowledge of the issue combined with his/her personal values, beliefs, and philosophy about managerial practices will influence how a decision is made in a given situation.

If neither quality nor acceptance is important — any of the eight decision options are appropriate.

**Team Processes**

Teamwork is simply the act of many individuals working together to achieve a common goal. Cross-functional teams have become an important element in the ability of USAID to achieve its goals and objectives. Because of the growing need for innovation and responsiveness, senior leaders need to pool their collective knowledge, resources, and expertise to meet competitive challenges — and cross-functional teams promote that sharing. However, in order for cross-functional teams to operate effectively, efficiently, and productively, they require a baseline of trust — all team members, including the team leader, must be willing to share resources and information. The element of trust is critical to a leader's success in attaining both personal and organizational goals. Low-trust cultures force senior leaders to manage, not lead.

A high degree of trust is often absent in the traditional bureaucratic organization where decision making is usually centralized, with few cross-functional interactions at lower levels, and where influence is often unilateral and exercised in a top-down manner. In this type of organization, a large part of the senior leader's role is devoted to managing vertical dependencies, directing and monitoring the work efforts of subordinates, and controlling day-to-day operations.

In contrast to traditional bureaucratic organizations, flatter organizational structures allow for the creation of team structures with a great deal of interaction and trust among team members and between team members and their senior leaders. In a flatter organization, senior leaders spend more time interacting with individuals outside their vertical chain of command and less time controlling activities. Due to this requirement, senior leaders' effectiveness is contingent upon their ability to influence those over whom they have no formal authority. When first moving into a team structure from an autocratic hierarchical organization, senior leaders often have a difficult time sharing power and responsibility.

Teams also place high premiums on involving employees in decision making and increasing the operational autonomy of individuals, shifting the senior leader's role from one where they gain control over employees to one where they gain commitment and cooperation from team members.

Senior leaders need to be aware of the role of trust in established cultural systems. They should learn to identify and change those cultural norms that act to limit trust. Team leadership is not so much exercising power as it is empowering others, and teamwork is a by-product.

## Selecting, Assigning and Sponsoring Teams

When selecting team members, leaders should consider the complementary skills teams need to do the job. Three categories of skills are relevant: technical/functional, problem-solving, and interpersonal.

1. Technical or functional skills are essentially self-explanatory. It would make little sense for a group of doctors to litigate an employment discrimination case. However, *teams* of doctors and lawyers often try medical malpractice cases.
2. Problem-solving and decision-making skills. Teams must be able to identify the problems and opportunities, evaluate options, and make the necessary compromises and decisions about how to proceed.
3. Interpersonal skills. Effective communication and constructive conflict depend on interpersonal skills. These skills include helpful criticism, objectivity, active listening, support, and recognizing the interests and achievements of others.

Teams must start with minimum skill sets, especially technical and functional ones. However, teams cannot achieve their full potentials without actively developing new skills. Many teams form based solely on compatibility or position within the organization, or leaders over-emphasize selection, believing that all of the skills are required at the start. However, with the exception of the more technical or advanced skills, most other team skills develop *after* joining the team.

All team members usually have the capacity for personal growth and may only need the proper context and challenge. Therefore, as long as the skill *potential* exists, the dynamics of teams help to develop new and necessary skills in their members.

Accordingly, leaders need to invest time and effort in developing team members to become more effective as their teams continue to work. Additionally, when selecting team members look for those who:

- See themselves as responsible for finding solutions
- Believe their expertise is relevant
- Will personally benefit if the issue is resolved
- Know how to find and "liberate" data or technical advice
- Can be trusted to approach the issue being addressed from a business perspective rather than a narrow functional standpoint
- See themselves as playing a key role when the time comes to move from analysis into action/implementation

Choose to pass over those who:

- Are too conscious of their rank and unwilling to admit that anyone with less experience can provide legitimate solutions
- Are likely to echo the political positions and biases of their supervisors
- Lack the patience to tackle complex issues

The size and mix of talent for a team depends upon the nature and complexity of the issue addressed. There is no set number.

As a team sponsor, the senior leader should have:

- Control over the resources needed to launch and sustain a group effort
- Awareness of the seriousness of the issue
- A personal stake in seeing a quick resolution
- Authority to ensure action once the group recommends a solution
- In addition, having the team sponsorship of a leader at the top (or close to the top) of the organization tells all parties involved that the issue is important, that a solution is urgently needed, and that everyone in the organization should support the team's efforts. The team sponsor's responsibilities include:
- Appointing the team members
- Designating the team leader
- Charging the team with finding a solution to the issue at hand
- Following the team's progress
- Protecting the team from political pressures or crises that might distract it
- Supporting the team's recommendation

Team sponsors must refrain from *telling teams how to solve issues*. When the going gets tough, the sponsors simply encourage teams to keep at their tasks.

## Team Roles

In general, the role of a team member is to be responsible, either individually or collaboratively, for implementing the programs, projects, and activities that will enable the team to meet its goals. To achieve high levels of performance, team members must know what their roles and responsibilities are. A team member's role is the set of functions an individual performs in response to the expectations of the team — and various self definitions. Team members need to carefully define their respective roles because there is a high potential for role conflict. When team members' roles are unclear, even those with the best intentions may upset others or fail to meet other's expectations. It is important to keep the following in mind when considering team roles:

1. Teams need a variety of roles filled to effectively accomplish their goals. Research shows that teams with members who are very similar in expertise and approach have poorer results than teams with members who have more heterogeneous skills and roles.
2. Some people have a natural inclination to assume certain roles successfully. For example, extroverts tend to fill roles that require interpersonal skills, whereas more analytical people fill roles that require attention to detail. Each role that a person plays serves a definite purpose and can help the team achieve its goals. However, not all roles are always required.
3. Some roles are only important at certain stages of a team's development. Since roles tend to have both assets and liabilities, leaders need to monitor the potential liabilities so the team's functions are not inhibited. Some team members may need encouragement to develop the necessary skills to fill some roles.

According to Kropp, there are eight team facilitation roles; four are task-related and four are relationship-related. Task-related roles contribute to the team's productivity by moving the task along to completion. The task-related roles are *Summarizer, Orienter, Fact Seeker*, and *Initiator*.

- The *Summarizer* urges the group to acknowledge consensus and reach a decision. By asking for verbal agreement with a summary, the Summarizer helps the team get past one decision and onto the next decision point.
- The *Orienter* prevents the team members from wandering too far from the topic at hand; the Orienter brings them back and focuses them again when they do stray. This redirecting should not be done abruptly so negative effects are not introduced into the relationship.
- The *Fact Seeker* tests reality to make sure the decision the team is about to take can be accomplished. This team member always wants more information and is quick to point out the difference between a fact and an opinion. The Fact Seeker is also helpful in pointing out when the team does not have all the information it needs to

make a sound decision. This member also suggests that the team get more data before proceeding and is good at checking the decision-making boundaries of the team.

- The *Initiator* gets the team started on the right foot. Getting agreement on a game plan before starting to work on the task is the distinguishing characteristic of the Initiator.

The relationship roles ensure that team members feel valued and respected and make a major contribution to the team's cohesiveness. The relationship roles are *Harmonizer, Analyzer, Gatekeeper,* and *Encourager.*

- The *Harmonizer* realizes that conflict is inevitable and, if left unresolved, is the biggest barrier to the team's achieving health and success. The Harmonizer calls the team's attention to a conflict and is able to focus discussion on satisfying the conflicting members' needs versus their wants as a way of mediating conflict.
- The *Analyzer* watches for changes in the vital signs of the team and brings these changes to the attention of the team.
- The *Gatekeeper* is concerned primarily with team communication and participation. This member makes sure all team members are actively listening to each other and understand each other's messages. The Gatekeeper paraphrases messages to ensure that every idea is understood by the group before being discredited or discarded. This member also invites quieter members to participate and prevents more active members from dominating.
- The *Encourager* builds and sustains team energy by showing support for people's efforts, ideas, and achievements. This team member emphasizes members' participation by giving verbal approval.

Senior leaders often find that some team members are natural at the skills involved in these roles and can easily assume them, while other members may need encouragement to assume one role. Having all eight roles covered may just be a matter of learning new facilitation behaviors.

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## LESSON 2
## Team Building: "Providing A Nurturing Environment"

Moving away from a top-down, hierarchical leadership style is a fundamental change for many individuals. Major challenges to becoming a flatter, team-based organization include:

- Relocation of authority – leaders who won't let go
- Clash of ideas – the front line resists ideas from those who were not on their hierarchical level previously
- Ambiguity resulting from the uncertainty individuals feel as old job descriptors are dissolved
- It takes time before new responsibilities and opportunities are clearly defined

Many scholars of organizational development and group dynamics say that teams evolve along predictable stages. Most commonly, the development phases of "Forming, Storming, Norming, and Performing" are used.

- Forming — In this stage, members learn about one another, and get oriented. Team members discover what behaviors are acceptable to others. It is an exploration period, where members are often cautious and guarded in interactions, unsure of what to expect from other team members. They explore boundaries of acceptable behavior and look for norms and roles they are willing to support. Some of the issues members may struggle with are identifying a leader and deciding if they want to be a member of the team.
- Storming — Characteristics of this stage include conflicts regarding goals, leadership, problem analysis, and solutions. Competition and strained relationships characterize this stage. Teams experience various degrees of conflict, but the storming stage deals with issues of power, leadership, and decision making. It is impossible to avoid conflict during this phase. It is the most crucial stage the team must work through. Members express their individuality and resist team formation. It is important that teams engage in joint problem solving, establish norms for considering different viewpoints, and encourage two-way communication.
- Norming — This stage is characterized by cohesiveness among team members and happens when conflict is sufficiently resolved and the team agrees on certain solutions and directions. Members accept the team norms, their own roles, and the idiosyncrasies of other members. Goals are in place and roles and responsibilities are understood.
- Performing — This stage is a time of cohesiveness and performance. The team becomes an entity capable of diagnosing and solving problems and making decisions.

The stages tend to reoccur, but to a lesser extent, as the group progresses and the team engages in more activities. Some Organizational Development professionals would add a

5th stage — that of "Adjourning" — or bringing closure to the team's work. An ending of anything causes each individual to go through an emotional change; for some team members, an ending of a team brings a sense of loss and sadness.

Building an effective team first involves defining and then maximizing use of all resources within an organization. The process is intended to eliminate confusion regarding reporting relationships, lines and limits of authority, and staff members' expectations of each other. Becoming an effective team (or "team effectiveness") addresses the following purposes and goals:

- Establishes a general structure in newly formed groups and organizations.
- Restructures and establishes new lines of communication in existing organizations.
- Provides tools to management and staff for better planning.
- Increases the flow of relevant communication between administrative and line personnel.
- Anticipates major problems by confronting them in earlier stages.
- Improves on-site training and increases staff participation in their own training.
- Establishes organizational training priorities and schedules.
- Communicates training needs to appropriate departments and supervisory personnel.
- Alerts personnel departments to necessary development, placement, or new policies.

The first phase of team effectiveness includes defining responsibilities. The purpose of the first meeting is to introduce the process to team members. Members are asked to write a detailed inventory of their responsibilities, competency level, reporting and supervisory relationships, and authority. Each of these areas are discussed at a second meeting and clarified and defined.

In the second phase, expectations are defined. This includes determining what leaders expect of their team members in terms of performance and productivity and what team members expect of their leaders in terms of training, direction, and support.

The third and final phase involves setting goals. Objectives must be set for both individuals and their unit or organization. In this phase, leaders and team members are given instructions about how to write objectives. A discussion of the objective-setting process, how it is concluded, and how it relates to organizational policy is the main focus of this meeting.

# Development of Teams

| Stages of Team Development | Task Behavior | Relationship Behavior | Psychological State |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Forming** | **Orientation** | **Testing and Dependence** | **Dependence** |
| **Storming** | **Emotional Responses** | **Intragroup Hostility** | **Independence** |
| **Norming** | **Expression of Opinions** | **Development of Team Cohesion** | **Interdependence** |
| **Performing** | **Emergence of Solutions** | **Functional Role Relatedness** | **Interdependence** |

[Adapted from USAID — www.info.usaid.gov/pubs/r4workshop/CORE4/sld030.htm]

**What Teams Need**

People tend to think of all teams as being the same, needing the same things. Of course, they do share certain needs. However each type of team needs different practices to be successful. Some of the problems encountered when the practices of one team type are applied to another include:

- Confusing the purpose.
- Providing the wrong structure.
- Applying the wrong methods.

Researchers have discovered some best practices for each team type. Key differences between types are highlighted below.

<u>High performance/self-directed work teams</u>:

- Hand off leadership responsibilities over time
- Make clear what responsibilities the team "owns" at particular times
- Become familiar with one another's work and understand challenges and interdependencies
- Focus on sharing vertical/management tasks
- Provide non-threatening process for evaluating team and individual performance
- Align organizational systems to encourage teamwork

- Teach leaders to coach, facilitate, and support the team without taking over
- Keep the team focused on performance, not on their own goals

Project teams:

- Get the customer/client intimately involved, view themselves as part of the team
- Ensure project planning is done with involvement of all core team members so they have an understanding of the whole project
- Conduct review meetings at major milestones
- Select a leader who keeps an eye on the big picture, resources, and deadlines
- Connect all team members with the customer to receive direct feedback, but provide customer with a primary contact person

Management teams:

- Clarify the purpose of the team
- Make sure members feel jointly accountable for the task
- Break down turf boundaries through dialogue, cross-training, joint responsibilities, etc.
- Explore the interdependencies and shared needs members have
- Use team building activities to help develop trust and openness

Teams tend to fail because:

- Differences in goals or alignment of purpose
- Poor leadership
- Communication difficulties
- Social and psychological factors
- Competition between members
- Members acting for own self-interests
- Disruptions in role relations

**Life Cycles of Teams**

The life cycles of teams serve critically important functions for the operating unit as a whole and for team members. Stages included in the life cycle of a team are birth, adolescence, maturity, decay, and death. The period from birth to maturity is typically two to three years. Maturity to decay may take two to five years. Decay to death takes less than a year and is usually triggered by a catastrophe the team produces.

## Current Issues and Trends

When reviewing recent literature, a common set of organizational characteristics has emerged as revisions needed to mold a new bureaucracy and move it into the twenty-first century. These characteristics are highly interrelated and the acronym FACT can be applied – flattened, adaptable, customer focused, and team focused.

- **Flattening** strips out unnecessary layers of the managerial hierarchy. Unnecessary refers to any person or function that neither makes decisions nor leads, whose sole purpose is the transfer of information.
- Increased **adaptability** refers to the elimination or redefinition of any procedure, rule, regulation or approval that stalls the decision-making process and information flow or that perpetuates inflexible work processes. In other words, rip out the red tape!
- **Customer** focus makes use of the customer's voice to determine what the critical properties of a new service should be. This method helps determine how internal work processes are managed to meet customer needs.
- Given the information presented under the first three organizational characteristics, it is obvious that **teams** are the heart of the new organization. Organizations are realizing that a diverse group of people can do a better job than a set of formal procedures, methods, or controls administered by a remote, centralized management.

The organization's success will depend on how well it is able to tap the gold mine of wisdom, creativity, and innovation held by the individual members of that organization. Collaboration, in the form of teamwork, is the key. Within USAID, teams perform much of the work of planning, implementing, and monitoring of the strategic objectives. Personnel assignments, promotions, and rewards are linked explicitly to the achievement of results by strategic objective teams. The new, reengineered system involves a substantial increase in the degree of responsibility, authority, autonomy, and accountability given to them. Key differences between traditional organizations and flatter organizations are:

| Traditional | | Flattened |
|---|---|---|
| Many narrow job categories | vs. | One or two broad job categories |
| Supervisor controls daily activities | vs. | Teams control own activities through group decisions |
| Individual performance determines rewards | vs. | Rewards are tied to team performance |
| Multiple layers, individual performance type of organizational structure | vs. | Fewer layers, team performance type of organizational structure |
| Narrow job design with single tasks | vs. | Whole processes and multiple tasks |
| Managers direct and control | vs. | Leaders coach and facilitate |
| Leadership is top-down | vs. | Leadership is shared with team members |
| Information flow is controlled and limited | vs. | Information flow is open and shared |

## Organizational Culture

For teams to succeed, they must have the appropriate organizational culture in which to grow. There are four types of organizational culture which vary considerably in how they think and learn, how they change, and how they motivate, reward, and resolve conflicts. The four types can be described as follows:

1. The family — is at the same time personal, with close face-to-face relationships, but also hierarchical, in the sense that the "mother" or "father" of a family has experience and authority greatly exceeding those of the "children." The result is a power-oriented culture in which the leader is regarded as a caring parent who knows better than the subordinates what should be done and what is good for them.
2. The Eiffel Tower — is a bureaucratic division of labor with various roles and functions prescribed in advance. These allocations are coordinated at the top of the hierarchy and if each role is played as envisioned, tasks will be completed as planned. One supervisor can oversee the completion of several tasks; one manager can oversee the job of several supervisors; and so on up the hierarchy. Each higher level has a clear and demonstrable function of holding together the levels beneath it.
3. The guided missile — is oriented to tasks, typically undertaken by teams or project groups. They must do "whatever it takes" to complete a task, and what is needed is often unclear and may have to be discovered. How the whole will function needs to be worked out with everyone's participation. All are equals. Such groups will have leaders or coordinators, will frequently draw on professionals, and are cross-disciplinary.
4. The incubator — is based on the existential idea that organizations are secondary to the fulfillment of individuals. The purpose of the incubator is to free individuals from routine to more creative activities and to minimize time spent on self-maintenance. The roles of the other people in the incubator are crucial. They are there to confirm, criticize, develop, find resources for, and help to complete the product or service. The culture acts as a sounding board for innovative ideas and tries to respond intelligently to new initiatives.

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## LESSON 3
## Participating On External Teams: "On Being An Effective Team Player"

External teams (with Department of State, Congress, PVOs, etc.) are politically important to USAID. Senior leaders must be able to effectively team with individuals from external organizations on a personal level.

Being a member of a team, as opposed to leading a team, calls for a different set of skills and techniques. Ford provides the following tips for members of teams, using the five stages of team development:

| **Stage 1 – Forming: Observe, Involve** | |
|---|---|
| To help strengthen the team, ensure its energy remains positive.<br>➢ Verbalize your thoughts.<br>➢ Be flexible. | ➢ Involve yourself and others.<br>➢ Be a positive force.<br>➢ Be informed. |
| **Stage 2 – Storming: Build, Bridge, Understand** | |
| ➢ Be a motivator.<br>➢ Remain a positive force.<br>➢ Accept and be open-minded.<br>➢ Know the issues before voicing your opinions. | ➢ Think about your motivation.<br>➢ Be aware of others' feelings, listen to others, and avoid personality clashes.<br>➢ Think about and prepare for your future. |
| **Stage 3 – Norming: Motivate, Collaborate, Create** | |
| See Stage 2 – be a motivator and watch your own motivation; be a positive force.<br>➢ Be a leader – if you are called to the role, get things done.<br>➢ Be yourself. | ➢ Voice your thoughts.<br>➢ Collaborate – assist each other to solve a problem and reach a goal.<br>➢ Be creative. |
| **Stage 4 – Performing: Focus, Produce** | |
| ➢ Remain a positive force.<br>➢ Be professional. | ➢ Meet your commitments. |
| **Stage 5 – Adjourning: Prepare, Think, Dedicate** | |
| ➢ Continue to think about and prepare for your future.<br>➢ Build bridges. | ➢ Voice your thoughts and feelings.<br>➢ Give suggestions for improvement. |

To improve and maintain team relationships with external groups, senior leaders should possess skills to effectively negotiate and resolve conflict. Fox explains that conflict resolution and the achievement of team goals are often accomplished by persuading others of an opinion. To do this effectively, it is beneficial to identify the other person's type of resistance and apply the appropriate strategy for persuasion.

| Types of Resistance | Strategies for Persuading Each Type |
|---|---|
| *Actively Hostile* | Although it may not be possible to stop this type from working against you, they need to be kept from "actively" doing so. To do this:<br>➢ work to build a positive relationship with them<br>➢ stress areas of agreement before entering areas of disagreement<br>➢ break the ice with humor or friendliness<br>➢ respect their ideas while still working to promote your viewpoint |
| *Hostile* | Convince this type that you are careful, fair, and logical. To do this:<br>➢ support your statements with evidence<br>➢ clarify on which points you agree and disagree with them<br>➢ show that you understand their point of view<br>➢ show that you are working for a "win-win" outcome<br>➢ use statistics and numbers accurately and fairly, avoiding tricks |
| *Neutral* | Associate your viewpoint with this type's feelings, values, and concerns. To do this:<br>➢ stress the connection between your viewpoint and their interests<br>➢ avoid complex arguments – focus on simple claims<br>➢ stress mutual benefits and mutual losses if your ideas are rejected |
| *Undecided* | Attempt to "nudge" this type to your side of the issue. To do this:<br>➢ focus attention on your side of the issue<br>➢ support your viewpoint with examples and expert opinions<br>➢ identify means to categorize your viewpoint into acceptable items<br>➢ emphasize your points so they do not slip back into indecision |
| *Uninformed* | Inform and persuade this type. To do this:<br>➢ stress your competency, experience, and background<br>➢ discuss your side of the issue without paying attention to the others<br>➢ encourage questions to get them involved in the discussion<br>➢ grab and keep their attention by presenting an interesting message |
| *Supportive* | Engage the energy and enthusiasm of this type to make them actively supportive. To do this:<br>➢ make sure they know what you want them to do<br>➢ strengthen their loyalty by sharing positive outcomes<br>➢ instruct them on what to expect and how to defend their proposals |
| *Actively Supportive* | Keep this type active. To do this:<br>➢ invite them to share their positive ideas and success stories<br>➢ strengthen their enthusiasm with your own |

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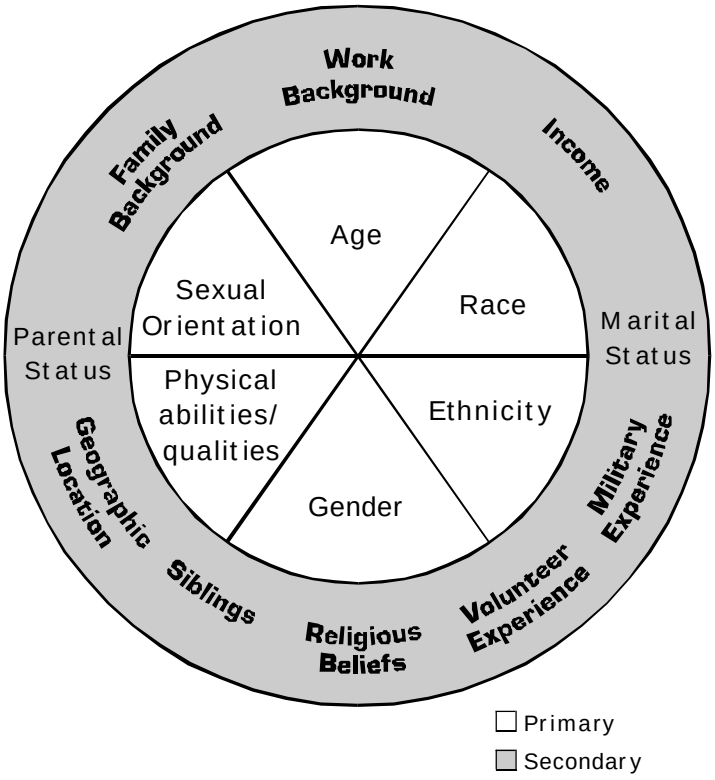
# UNIT 7: VALUING DIVERSITY
# "MAKING OUR DIFFERENCES A STRENGTH"

Each person's identity is influenced by their life experiences, which contain both unchangeable and changeable aspects. Sometimes the unchangeable aspects are referred to as primary dimensions and the changeable aspects as secondary dimensions. Primary dimensions are visible. They include age, gender, ethnicity, race, physical ability, and other physical qualities. Secondary dimensions include less apparent differences like religious beliefs, personality, educational background, communication style, learning style, personality, marital status, functional specialization, and class.

**Primary and Secondary Dimensions of Diversity**




(From: Loden and Rosner, *Workforce America!*, 1991)

Valuing diversity promotes a two-way learning and adaptation process in which both the organization and its individual members change — hopefully adopting the best of the cultural norms and values of each other — emphasizing interdependence and mutual appreciation.

# LESSON 1
# Valuing Diversity

## The Role of Cultural Diversity

Understanding the effects of culture on human behavior is crucial to the success of multinational organizations. Organizations are also emphasizing the importance of cross-functional teams as a basis for creating a more productive workforce. Since different work functions within organizations can have different cultures, this trend adds a strong element of cultural diversity within many organizations.

Leaders must understand the magnitude of the effect that cultural diversity has on employee behavior in the workplace, and the challenges diversity poses to organizations and their management of it. Effectively managing diversity is a critical core competency for leaders. The organizational capacity for managing diversity well has major implications for organizational performance.

### What is cultural diversity?

An individual's personal identity is based *in part* on membership in significant social categories (groups), along with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership. Although each person is an individual, for many people their various group identities play a role in how they choose to define themselves. Even if these identities are not important to the individual's self-definition, they often influence how others define and interact with them.

Some group identities are cultural. A cultural group is defined as a group of people who all share certain norms, values, or traditions that are different from those of other groups. Cultural diversity is defined as the representation in one social system of people with distinctly different group affiliations of cultural significance. This applies to *all* types of cultural identities including religion, age, physical ability, nationality, racio-ethnicity, gender, and job function.

### The Effect of the Organizational Diversity Climate on Employees

The organizational diversity climate can influence career experiences and outcomes in two ways; affective and achievement outcomes. Affective outcomes refer to how people feel about their work (morale, satisfaction) and their employer. Achievement outcomes reflect the actual careers of individuals as measured by instruments such as job performance ratings, promotion rates, and compensation. Affective and achievement outcomes are related to group identities in some organizations. These outcomes impact organizational effectiveness measures such as work quality, productivity, absenteeism, and turnover.

The Importance of Perception

Behavior is driven by perceptions of reality. A sense of being valued can be influenced by cultural differences. What people believe about their opportunities in the work environment is of vital importance *whether or not* these beliefs are consistent with the facts. Stereotyping, ethnocentrism, and prejudice impact minority groups by making them feel less valued.

In a recent study of 300 managerial/professional employees, White women were nearly three times more likely than White men to *perceive* that being a man was an important factor in being promoted to senior positions. Non-Whites (both men and women) were three times more likely to *perceive* that race was an important factor in being promoted to senior positions.

The impact of attitudes on various individual work outcomes was also examined using samples of police officers, brokerage clerks, and public school teachers. Employees' perceptions of being valued by an organization had a significant effect on their level of conscientiousness, job involvement, and innovativeness. When people feel that they are valued and that their differences add value, they are motivated to do their best work.

## Benefits of Diversity

Innovation and Creativity

Increased cultural diversity in organizations often leads to higher levels of creativity and innovation. In her book, *The Change Masters* (1983), Rosabeth Moss Kanter indicates that differences in perspectives and assumptions were one of the most important factors for team success. She also notes that highly innovative organizations have more women and minorities, are better at eradicating classism, and take deliberate steps to create heterogeneous work teams.

Problem Solving and Decision Making

Diverse groups have a broader and richer base of experience from which to approach problems. Critical analysis in decision groups is enhanced by member diversity. A series of research studies conducted at the University of Michigan in the 1960s found that heterogeneous groups produced better quality solutions to problems than did homogeneous groups. Group diversity included personality measures and gender.

One of the studies found that 65 percent of heterogeneous groups produced high quality solutions (solutions that provided new, modified, or integrative approaches to the problems) compared to 21 percent of the homogeneous groups. Diverse groups with training in the existence and implications of their differences produce problem solving scores that are six times higher than those of the homogenous groups.

Additional studies have found that the level of critical analysis of decision issues and alternatives is higher within groups subjected to minority views than in those that are not. In this case the word *minority* refers to the existence of a small number of people with different viewpoints than those of the majority. The presence of minority views improved the quality of the decision process regardless of whether or not the minority views were adopted. They found that there were a larger number of alternatives considered and a more thorough examination of assumptions and implications of alternative scenarios occurred.

Impact on Organizational Flexibility

In a rapidly changing global environment, individuals and organizations must have the ability to tolerate ambiguity and uncertainty; to see and understand that behavior, events, issues, and problems may have more than one explanation or more than one solution. They must also be able and willing to:

- Quickly adjust their perceptions and behavior as required.
- Understand why members of other cultures behave as they do.
- Accurately assess the impact of their behavior on others.
- Adapt their behavior to the circumstances as needed to achieve positive communications and interactions.

The process of managing diversity may in itself enhance organizational flexibility. The changes required for managing diversity impact other areas of management. The tolerance for alternative points of view that is fostered by managing diversity should lead to more openness to new ideas in general.

Organizations that are successful in overcoming resistance to change in the area of valuing and managing diversity should be better able to deal with resistance to other types of organizational change. Narrowness of thinking, rigidity, and a tendency to standardize definitions of "good work" styles, characterize organizational cultures that are anti-diversity, anti-innovation, and anti-creativity.

The "undiscussed" issue surrounding valuing and managing diversity

Many European American males feel "invisible," attacked, left out, and alienated when discussions of valuing diversity occur. They do not see themselves as a homogeneous grouping but as individuals with unique characteristics that should be valued and appreciated, which is correct. Early attempts to communicate the importance of valuing diversity were well meaning but limited in their approach.

For many years, the workplace was a reflection of the similar backgrounds, values, styles, perspectives, beliefs of the dominant cultural group in American society (European American male) and it was exclusionary. All individuals entering the workplace were expected to conform to the established norms. Differences in culture, personality, learning styles, religion, and perspectives were not accommodated.

Valuing and managing diversity is inclusionary, not exclusionary. Change is difficult, is sometimes uncomfortable and painful, requires time and effort, but it is occurring. Differences are not seen as negatives to be suppressed, but are embraced as assets. Individuals are accepted for the value and competency they bring to the workplace. Preconceived notions about differences and their significance regarding an individual's value and competency are being discarded.

Valuing and managing diversity is positive, is not automatic, and requires leadership, vision, and action. It is liberating for everyone in the workplace. The workplace environment created by valuing diversity permits everyone the freedom to acknowledge, explore, and maximize his or her different abilities, and to contribute to the productivity of the workplace. Everyone wins. Everyone includes European American males.

Use the following approaches as opportunities and challenges arise regarding valuing diversity arise in fulfilling your managerial responsibilities, day-to-day interactions, and team settings:

- Talk to yourself about the issue or situation. Ask yourself:
  - Are any of my biases or filters getting in the way?
  - What do I need from others to work together better?
  - Am I prepared to focus on specific behavior?
  - Is this important enough to act on?
- Address the issue, do not avoid it.
  - Set up a private meeting with the person in need of feedback.
  - Show respect.
  - Be direct and honest.
  - Describe the facts, as you know them.
  - Be specific. Have hard data.
  - Focus on issues, not on the person.
  - Describe your feelings, thoughts, and perceptions.
  - Offer creative options when you disagree.
  - Provide examples of the advantages and disadvantages of a specific suggestion.
  - Agree to disagree when that seems most appropriate.
- Listen and ask.
  - Use active and empathic listening skills.
  - Pay careful attention to voice tone and body language — the other person's as well as your own.
  - Ask open-ended and clarifying questions.

- Observe behaviors and listen to conversations of your co-workers.
- Respect different points of view.

➢ Keep an open mind.

- Educate yourself.
- Strive for win/win outcomes.
- Treat others as **they** want to be treated.
- Acknowledge your mistakes and learn from them.
- Be forgiving when others make mistakes.
- Appreciate differences . . . *all* kinds of differences.
- Recognize that there are multiple ways to do anything.
- Be open to letting your ideal preference go and examine the possibility of a different mutually beneficial outcome.

All of these recommendations are not only useful when you interact with people that are *different* from you; they are good practices to use in your interactions with *all people.*

## LESSONS 2 and 3
## Supporting Diversity: "Just Doing It"
## &
## Diversity Works: "Success in Differences"

### The Significance of Diversity to USAID:

America and other nations of the world are rapidly changing in the composition of their populations, perspectives, and attitudes. The workplace is a microcosm of the larger society and is changing as well. Multinational organizations such as USAID have diverse workforces composed of individuals with the primary and secondary aspects previously mentioned. In addition, these individuals have different cultures, languages, orientations towards time and space, communication styles, learning styles, thinking styles, and orientations towards cooperation and competition.

USAID has a commitment to embracing and valuing all aspects of diversity. In the words of J. Brian Atwood, former Administrator for USAID:

> "USAID is dedicated to improving the quality of human life and developing individual opportunities globally. Consistent with that mission, USAID is dedicated to a goal of a diverse workplace that is free of discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, age, national origin, disability, and sexual orientation. This commitment extends to both the civil and foreign service, and to all levels of the workforce.
>
> Moreover, USAID represents the American people and our values directly in relations with foreign governments and peoples. One of the great strengths of the United States, and one of the values which is most important to share with others, is our respect for the diversity of our people.
>
> USAID must strive for a dedicated and productive workforce and must have the best each person can deliver. In turn, the Agency must demonstrate that it values all of its employees, and that it will take measures to ensure real opportunities for employment and career advancement for all who demonstrate competence, hard work, a positive attitude, and a willingness to make the extra effort to contribute.
>
> In pursuing this goal, USAID is guided by sound human resource management practices, to elicit the best from each employee, and by successful equal employment opportunity programs that contribute to the rich diversity of our workforce. In addition, USAID must meet the specific requirements of Federal laws and regulations that govern affirmative employment practices and their enforcement. USAID has a collective and an individual responsibility to provide equal employment opportunity."

"Valuing Diversity" is a core value of the Agency. It encompasses the traditional component of Equal Employment Opportunity and Affirmative Action as it applies to the

U.S. workforce. However, it goes beyond these statutory mandates to address cultural dimensions and mutual respect for the worldwide workforce, including Foreign Service Nationals.

Appraisal Committees, Civil Service Merit Promotion Panels, and Foreign Service Boards must give the same positive consideration to employees who demonstrate successful accomplishment in meeting the diversity commitment as they do to employees who demonstrate successful performance and accomplishment in specific skills or other Core Value areas.

**What is Managing Diversity?**

Managing diversity is not "the newest, politically well-scrubbed name for policies aimed at bringing minorities into the business mainstream through preferential hiring and promotion." (*Race in the workplace*, Business Week, July 8, 1991). Managing diversity is the planning and implementing of organizational systems and practices to manage people, so that the potential advantages of diversity are maximized while its potential disadvantages are minimized. The ultimate goal of managing diversity is to maximize the ability of all employees to achieve their full potential and to contribute to the achievement of organizational goals. Organizational goals that are facilitated by managing diversity well are:

- Fulfillment of moral, ethical, and social responsibilities.
- Observance of legal obligations.
- Achievement of productivity performance goals.

<u>Moral, Ethical, and Social Responsibilities</u>

Nations that believe that all people should have equal economic, political, and social rights are aware that there is a strong tendency for in-group members (the majority) to be favored over out-group members (the minority). These issues involve fairness and justice.

An organization's ethics determine how it treats its employees, customers, and suppliers — how it participates in the larger community. Ethical behavior is based on the principle of right conduct rather than legality, on doing whatever brings the greatest benefit or the least harm to all those involved. Investing in and managing diversity is the moral and ethical "right thing to do."

Organizations exist within the larger communities in which they operate. The achievement of social responsibility goals enhances the achievement of long-term performance goals. For example, in the United States if educational achievement is improved for African Americans, Latinos, and poor people in general, it improves national economic competitiveness. The achievement of national long-term economic

goals in turn impacts the quality of life for *everyone*. These and other issues represent major motives driving nations and organizations to invest in and manage diversity.

Legal Responsibilities

If individuals and organizations valued and respected diversity, there would be no need for legislation to outlaw discrimination and dictate behavior. USAID's Equal Employment Opportunity Program, mandated by statue and Executive Order, spans Agency programs. It represents an integral part of the Agency's human resources management program.

- The Equal Pay Act of 1963 (as amended) prohibits any discrimination, on the basis of sex, in wages and fringe benefits.
- The Civil Rights Act of 1964 (as amended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act [Title VIII] of 1972) prohibits discrimination in employment based on five factors: race, color, creed, sex, or national origin.
- The Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 prohibits discrimination based on age against individuals who are age 40 and older. Age discrimination has been the subject of more litigation than race or gender in recent years.
- Executive Order 11478 of 1969:
  - Requires the head of each executive department and agency to establish and maintain affirmative employment programs and policies.
  - Requires EEO as an integral part of every aspect of personnel policy and practice in employment, development, advancement, and treatment of civilian employees of the Federal Government.
  - Requires that the personnel system reflect equal opportunity in all phases of hiring, promotions, evaluations, awards, and training actions.
- The Foreign Service Act of 1980, (as amended):
  - Reflects congressional findings that membership of the Foreign Service should be representative of the American people and that the Service should be operated on the basis of merit principles.
  - Embraces Affirmative Employment Programs, including minority recruitment programs, to facilitate and encourage entry into and advancement in the Foreign Service and equality of opportunity, fair and equitable treatment for all persons without regard to political affiliation, race, color, religion, national origin, sex, marital status, age, or disability.
- The Rehabilitation Act of 1973, (as amended) prohibits discrimination in employment on the basis of physical or mental handicap.
- The Vietnam Veterans' Readjustment Act of 1974 outlaws employment discrimination against veterans of the Vietnam War.

- The Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 established the Federal Equal Opportunity Recruitment Program, which requires agencies to conduct a continuing recruitment program designed to eliminate under representation of minorities in its workforce.
- The Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978 prohibits the exclusion of applicants and employees from jobs because of pregnancy, as well as any requirement that they cease to work at a specified time, unless the employer can prove "business necessity."
- The Civil Rights Act of 1991:
  - Allows victims of intentional discrimination based on sex, religion, or disability to seek compensatory damages. This was previously available only to racial and ethnic minorities.
  - Provides Senate employees and political appointees of the Executive Branch anti-discrimination laws coverage.
- Architectural Barriers Act of 1969, (42 U.S.C. 4151 et seq.) requires that facilities designed, constructed, altered or leased with certain Federal funds be accessible to persons with disabilities. The United States Architectural and Transportation Barriers Compliance Board enforces the Barriers Act.
- The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990 prohibits discrimination on the basis of physical disability in an employment decision if the individual is qualified or could be made qualified to do the job by a "reasonable accommodation" on the employer's part.
- The Sexual Orientation Discrimination Policy of 1998 (Foreign Affairs Handbook [3 FAH-1 H-1520]) implements the State Department's policy of Equal Employment Opportunity without regard to sexual orientation and establishes the process for filing complaints.
- Executive Order 11246 requires that United States businesses wishing to serve as government contractors take steps to ensure that past discrimination is remedied and that discrimination does not occur in the future.

Prevention is Better than Cure

All employees share the responsibility for ensuring that USAID is a comfortable, productive environment for everyone. Failure to uncover and promptly redress evidence of unfair treatment or to manage diversity in this regard has led to EEO complaints and costly discrimination and harassment lawsuits.

Unwillingness to act promptly allows what are sometimes misunderstandings to fester and grow out of control. Prompt action according to established procedures can result in win/win solutions that are satisfactory to all involved. Seek information and guidance, as necessary, from EOP Room 2.9C RRB, (202) 712-1110 or TAD (202) 712-3393.

Preventing Discrimination

Effective leaders should take the following positive steps:

- Give all employees career-enhancing assignments and training opportunities on an equitable basis.
- Brief all staff on EEO principles and expectations.
- Provide thoughtful career counseling.
- Assure staff of a work environment free of harassment or prejudice.
- Cooperate fully with the discrimination complaint process.
- Provide fair and equitable recognition for work well done.
- Apply EEO principles and policy in daily work by including the full range of views and diverse perspectives in mission decisions.
- Treat employees respectfully.
- Foster equal opportunity principles of fairness and equity in the workplace.
- Avoid collusion by letting disrespectful comments by others go unanswered. Silence, denial, and cooperation are all forms of collusion.
- Recognize that all employees bring various differences to the workplace and that these differences represent a strength of the Agency, enhancing the richness and vitality of the work environment.

Preventing Sexual Harassment

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) defines sexual harassment as unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. Such actions constitute sexual harassment when:

- Submission to the conduct is made or implied as a term of condition of an individual's employment.
- Submission to or rejection of such conduct is used as the basis for employment decisions affecting the individual.
- Such conduct has the purpose of effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.

Words or actions can become sexual harassment and are considered *quid pro quo* sexual harassment if they are:

- Not welcomed by the recipient.
- Directly or indirectly linked to employment decisions such as work assignments, promotions, or disciplinary actions or form the basis of such decisions.

Sexual harassment also can be found where activities of a sexual nature result in a hostile, offensive, or intimidating atmosphere, or interfere with the work or performance of other employees. Senior leaders should:

- Create and maintain a working environment that is free from sexual harassment.
- Take immediate and appropriate corrective action when sexual harassment has been alleged.
- Educate the workforce.
  - Make employees aware of Agency policies prohibiting sexual harassment.
  - Inform employees that offensive, harmful behavior will not be tolerated.
- Establish open lines of communication.
  - Encourage open discussion about issues related to sexual harassment.
  - Provide employees with information and time to seek help from EEO Counselors or other appropriate officials.
- Monitor the environment.
  - Be aware of conditions, behavior, remarks, jokes, etc., which may constitute sexual harassment.
  - If there is sexual joking or teasing, does it seem to cause tensions? A general rule is that there should be no such discussion in the workplace.
- Treat every allegation/complaint of sexual harassment seriously. See below for suggested interview questions.
  - Discourage the making of jokes about sexual harassment that gives people the impression that it is not a serious subject.
- When sexual harassment is reported, interview the alleged offender(s).
  - He or she has the right to hear and respond to the accusations. Be sure to conduct the interview in a straightforward, unbiased manner.
  - In this interview, management must tell the alleged harasser that certain behavior has been alleged.
    - To the extent these allegations are true, such behavior must immediately cease.

This action should eliminate any hostile environment that was created and diminish Agency liability for any future offensive acts by this individual that may occur. If no resolution or conclusion is made, and the alleged offender denies the behavior or has a variation of the story, you should:

- Consult the Office of Equal Opportunity Programs for advice and support. Such action does **not** constitute initiation of a complaint.
- Conduct a limited inquiry into the matter.

- Monitor the workplace to ensure that the harassment stops. Remember, you and the Agency are liable for any behavior your reasonably could be expected to know about.
- Make a written record of actions taken to use if a formal complaint is filed.
- Explain the results of the inquiry and action(s) that are taken to the person filing the complaint.

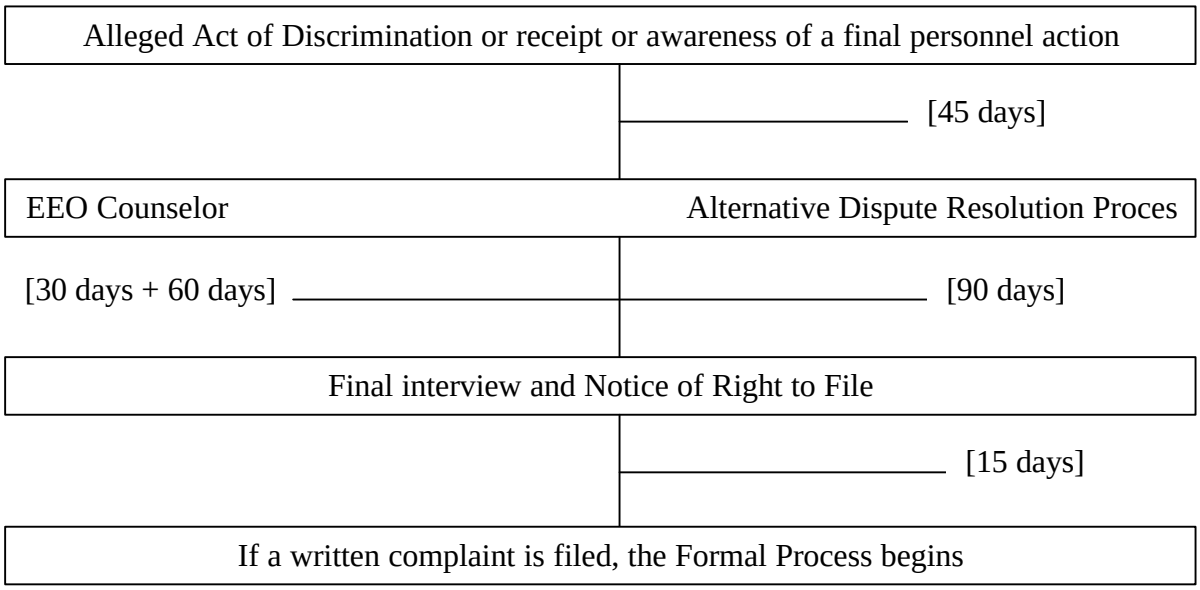
Managing Complaints of Discrimination

Complainants should be encouraged to provide as many facts as possible. The following are some suggested questions to ask when interviewing an aggrieved individual:

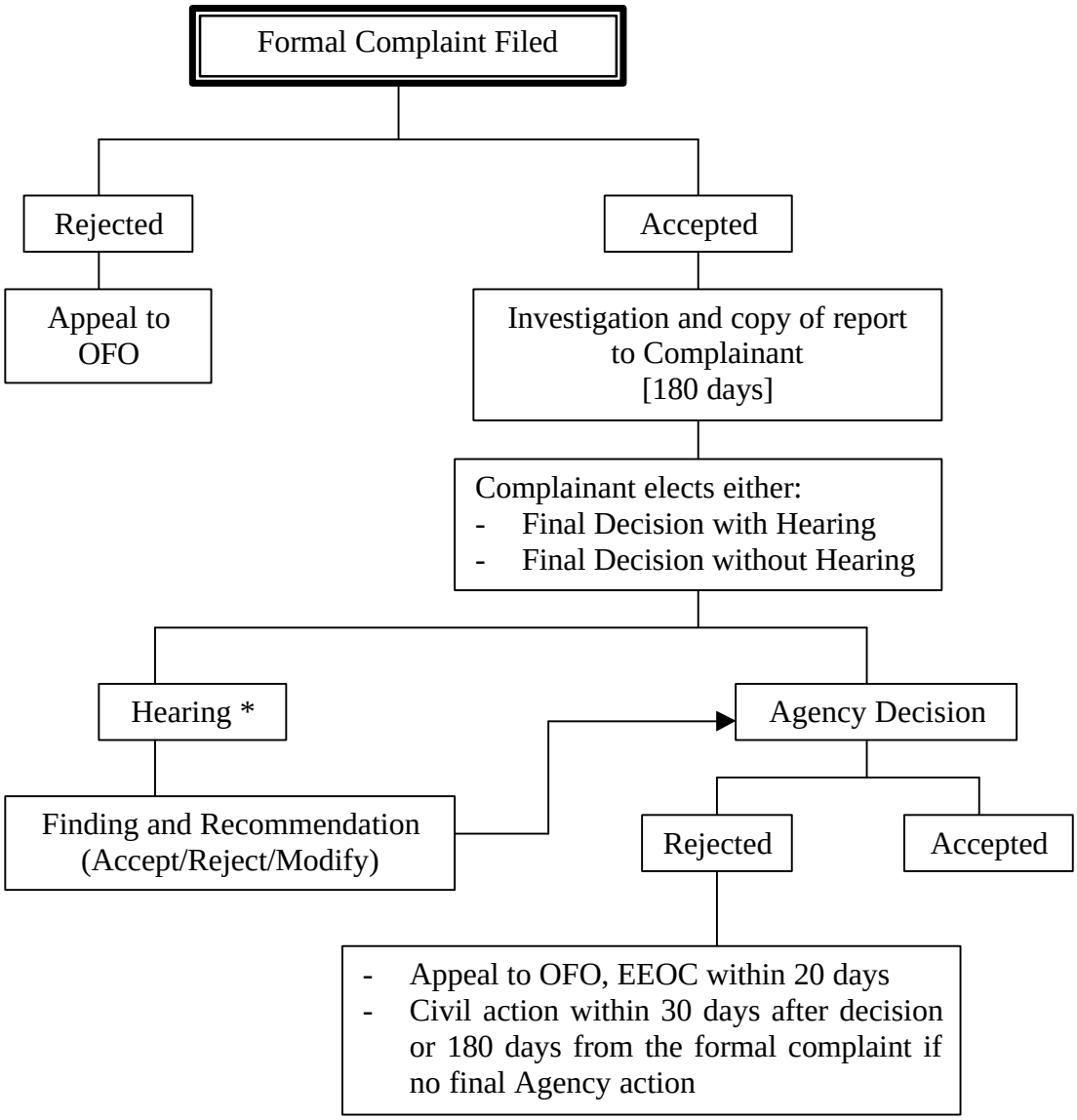
- What is the specific conduct that is alleged to discriminatory? Where and when did it occur?
- What is the relationship of the alleged harasser (manager, supervisor, coworker, non-employee)? If the alleged harasser is not a manger or supervisor, was s/he acting in a supervisory capacity when the conduct occurred?
- Has the alleged harasser been charged by others?
- Did the aggrieved person communicate the fact that the behavior was unwelcome? If so, how?
- If any adverse employment action (e.g., firing, demotion, unwanted transfer, less desirable duties or hours, unfavorable job review) was taken against the complainant, try to determine if there is any connection between this action and the alleged harassment.

Federal Sector Discrimination Complaint Process

**Overview of Federal Sector Complaint Processing**
**Under C.F.R. Part 1614**
**Informal Stage**



**Overview of Federal Sector Complaint Processing**
**Under C.F.R. Part 1614**
**Formal Stage**




* Except sexual orientation complaints

USAID is responsible for the nomination, selection, and training of the EEO counselors and assuring that counseling services are readily available to aggrieved persons throughout USAID office locations and overseas missions. Every employee or applicant who believes he or she has been discriminated against or subjected to retaliation prohibited by Title VII **MUST** consult an Equal Employment Opportunity Counselor, prior to filing a formal complaint, in order to try to informally resolve the matter.

An aggrieved person must initiate contact with a counselor within 45 days of the date of the matter alleged to be discriminatory or, in the case of a personnel action, within 45 days of the effective date of the action. Otherwise, the complaint is subject to rejection for failure to consult timely. Under certain circumstances, this time limit may be extended.

The aggrieved person/complainant shall have the right to be accompanied, represented, and advised by a representative or attorney of his/her choice at all stages of the complaints process. If the complainant is an employee of USAID, he or she shall have a reasonable amount of official time, if otherwise on duty, to prepare the complaint and to respond to Agency and EEOC requests for information. See USAID Handbook 24 for specifics.

EEO counselors must advise individuals of their rights and responsibilities. Counselors shall record clearly the alleged discriminatory issues, relevant circumstances, contacts, and attempted informal resolution effort. Counselors shall conduct the final interview with the aggrieved person no later than 30 days of after initial contact. Any approved extension of counseling to the maximum of 60 days must be properly recorded.

If the matter is referred to USAID's dispute resolution process, the pre-complaint processing period shall be 90 days. Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) is a type of mediation that is being increasingly deployed in the Federal establishment not only to save resources and staff time, but also to facilitate creative resolutions that allow parties in conflict to work constructively together. While participation in mediation procedures is mandatory for management, participation in mediation on the part of the complaining party is voluntary. If an employee agrees to mediation to resolve his/her complaint, whether in informal EEO counseling or after a formal complaint is filed, the EEO complaints process is held in abeyance, and the employee loses no rights to proceed with that complaint if mediation is unsuccessful.

<u>Discrimination Based on Disability</u>

Person with Disability is defined here as one who:
1. Has a physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more of such person's major life activities.
2. Has a record of such impairment, or
3. Is regarded as having such impairment.

"Major life activities" includes functions such as: caring for one's self, performing manual tasks, walking, seeing, hearing, speaking, breathing, learning, and working.

USAID will not discriminate against qualified disabled applicants or employees due to the inaccessibility of its facility. A facility shall be deemed accessible if it is in compliance with the Architectural Barriers Act of 1968.

USAID Disability Policy

The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that up to 10% of the world's population has a disability. An estimated 80% of these live in developing countries. In a press advisory released on the occasion of the International Day of Disabled Persons, WHO stated that "Poverty and disability are closely intertwined and these two issues must be tackled together."

Research commissioned by the World Bank also identified a link between poverty and disability: "Disabled people have lower education and income levels than the rest of the population. They are more likely to have incomes below poverty level than non-disabled population, and they are less likely to have savings and other assets. The links between poverty and disability go two ways — not only does disability add to the risk of poverty, but conditions of poverty add to the risk of disability." The impact of this relationship is apparent in every development sector. This, in short, describes why disability is a USAID issue (see www.usaid.gov/about/disability/2ar_imp_policy.html).

USAID is committed to including people who have physical and mental disabilities and those who advocate and offer services on behalf of people with disabilities. This commitment extends from the design and implementation of USAID programming to advocacy for, and outreach to, people with disabilities. USAID's policy on disability is as follows:

> To avoid discrimination against people with disabilities in programs which USAID funds and to stimulate an engagement of host country counterparts, governments, implementing organizations and other donors in promoting a climate of nondiscrimination against and equal opportunity for people with disabilities.
>
> (For the complete USAID/General Notice Policy Paper PPC 09/12/97, please see www.info.usaid.gov/about/disability/DISABPOL.FIN.html)

USAID's Center for Human Capacity and Development has developed a set of guidelines and policies to follow with regards to the opportunities for the disabled. The mandatory ADS 253 Policy Reference sets forth USAID Policy for the Placement and Monitoring of Participants with Disabilities.

> Missions are to select and include for training (both academic and technical) qualified persons with disabilities and indeed persons with disabilities who are members of disability-oriented organizations in their nations. It is hoped that the benefits of training abroad will be shared with many others through those organizations.
>
> (For more information: www.info.usaid.gov/about/disability/hcd_dispol.html)

General Etiquette for Working With People With Disabilities

The Disability Etiquette Handbook (City of San Antonio Disability Access Office) provides the following guidelines for working with someone who with a disability:

- Use a normal tone of voice. Do not raise your voice unless requested. Relax; do not be embarrassed if you happen to use common expressions such as "See you later" or "Got to be running along" that seem to relate to the person's disability.
- When introduced to a person with a disability, offer to shake hands. People with limited hand use or who wear an artificial limb can usually shake hands. For those who cannot shake hands, touch the person on the shoulder or arm to welcome and acknowledge their presence.
- When talking with a person with a disability, look at and speak directly to that person rather than through a companion who may be along. If an interpreter is present, speak to the person and not the interpreter. Always maintain eye contact with the applicant, not the interpreter.
- Never lean on a person's wheelchair and never pat them on the head or shoulder.
- Listen attentively to a person who has a speech impairment. Exercise patience rather than attempting to speak for a person with speech difficulty.
- Address a person by first name only when extending the same familiarity to others.
- Offer assistance in a dignified manner with sensitivity and respect. Be prepared to have the offer declined and do not proceed to assist if the offer is declined. If the offer is accepted, listen to and accept instructions.
- Offer to hold or carry packages in a welcoming manner ("May I help you with your packages?")

People with disabilities want to be portrayed realistically and spoken to respectfully. Be careful not to imply that they are to be pitied, feared, ignored, or that they are somehow more heroic or 'special' than others. They prefer that you focus on their individuality, not their disability. For example, the words 'disabled people' define people as disabled first and people second. The term "people with disabilities" is the preferred usage since it stresses the humanity of individuals. Following are some additional preferences:

| DON'T USE | DO USE ("People-First" terms) |
|---|---|
| the deaf | people who are deaf |
| the vision impaired | people with vision impairments |
| the disabled | people with disabilities |
| polio victim | had polio |
| a victim of AIDS | a person with AIDS |
| bound/confined to a wheelchair | uses a wheelchair |
| homebound employment | employed in the home |
| victim | person who has or experienced |
| crippled | person with a disability |
| invalid | person who has a disability caused by… |

## Challenges of Diversity

Potential for Increased Conflict

Managing diversity means accepting that there is an increased potential for conflict in diverse workgroups, and the need to proactively seek effective and creative methods of identifying and resolving it. The creative management of conflict created by diversity requires the same characteristics that allow organizations to effectively value diversity and gain from it. Some of the differences that may occur in a culturally diverse workgroup follow.

- African Americans prefer forthrightness and directness in conflicts. White Americans, Asians, Latin Americans, and others prefer a more indirect manner of dealing with conflict and sometimes misinterpret this African American preference as being inappropriately hostile.
- Latin Americans and Hispanic Americans prefer to avoid unpleasantness or face-to-face confrontations with anyone with whom they are working or have a relationship.
- Asians consider it inappropriate and disrespectful to disagree publicly in a group meeting if there are individuals of higher status present, or if interpersonal relationships have not yet been established. Expressions of disagreement are only voiced in private, in writing, or may be sent by an intermediary. This allows individuals to "save face."

It is rude to say "No" to someone in authority in many cultures. So, someone may promise to do something when asked even if they know they cannot. This leads to conflict when the task is not done.

- Complaining or indicating that someone does not understand something is considered impolite in many Asian cultures because it causes the other person to "lose face." Understanding may be indicated where there is none.
- Denying a request or someone's offer in some cultures is also considered taboo. Non-verbal signals may be sent to indicate something is wrong but they may be missed if the culture is not thoroughly understood.

In times of stress or pressure, people tend to act in ways that are most typical of their culture and to see others as stereotypes. Should such conflict between groups or individuals occur within your operating unit, use the conflict management strategies that were previously discussed and also include the following strategies:

- Avoid taking sides in a conflict as much as possible.
- Use active and empathic listening skills.
- Continue to work at the level of personal communication and education helping people to understand and value their differences.
- Create a safe forum where people can air their differences without fear of reprisal.

- If face-saving is important, try speaking more abstractly about how people should behave in an ideal organization.
- Do not directly criticize what specific persons have said or done.

Language barriers and style issues

Foreign language training is important for all managerial and professional employees within international organizations. Research indicates that members of different cultural groups have significant differences not only in language but also in preferred styles of communication. Unacknowledged cultural differences may detract from working relationships. If what is said is understood to be an insult or an attack, what the intent is makes little difference. The other person's response and subsequent behavior will be based not on the intended meaning, but on his or her understanding of that meaning. The intent is irrelevant unless openly shared and discussed.

There are also gender differences in communication purposes and styles. These differences are outgrowths of childhood experiences and the use of language during those experiences. Generally, according to Deborah Tannen, men see the primary purpose of communication as that of obtaining or giving information. It is also used as a way to negotiate and gain the upper hand or status within relationships. Communication emphasizes independence for men. Women tend to see communication as an avenue of interaction; a negotiation for the sharing of support and reaching consensus. Communication emphasizes intimacy and a sense of connection for women.

An example of this difference in style and purpose of communication between men and women is that of the discussion of problems.

- Women often acknowledge problems in an effort to solicit confirmation, support, and discussion of the issues. They are not asking for a solution to the problem.
- Men tend to see such problem acknowledgement as a request for advice on how to solve the problem. Then, they usually provide strongly worded advice to women.
- Women often don't take the advice (it wasn't what they were seeking), and may become annoyed that the advice was given. They feel capable of solving the problem themselves.
- Men do not understand why the advice they thought was being sought is discarded, or why the woman may appear to be annoyed. Communications like these leave both parties frustrated and confused about what has gone wrong.

Even when people of different nationalities share a common language in which they can communicate, information is often presented and interpreted differently by people of different cultural groups. Subtle nuances of tone and inflection in every language add to the meaning of conversational interactions. It is difficult for non-native speakers of a language to notice these nuances.

- Something important to the meaning of what is being communicated by a native speaker of a language may be missed or entirely misunderstood by a non-native speaker.
- The use of idioms, slang, sports analogies, and humor do not translate well and should be eliminated from cross-cultural communications, especially if one is not well-grounded in knowledge about the culture of the individual(s) involved.

The style of American discussions has sometimes been described as chaotic and as a "free-for-all." The American style tends to be one of aggressive competition when it comes to getting "air time." The American norm is to "jump in" and start talking as soon as the current speaker pauses. A pause may or may not signal that a person is finished speaking. If they are not finished speaking, they are cut off prematurely.

The meaning of time, social distance, status of the participants, ambience, decorum, the manner of delivery, and non-verbal communication (such as eye contact and positioning of the body) vary from culture to culture. Individuals that come from cultures that value reserve, modesty, and deference to authority figures (Asian cultures), and are non-native English speakers are at a distinct disadvantage when it comes to participating in cross-cultural discussions with native English speakers.

- Different cultures have different "space" norms that are considered appropriate between persons conversing in a public place. In South and Latin America, the Middle East, and Africa people stand or sit much closer together when conversing. For example, suppose two business people, one from America and the other from a Latin American country, who have a slight business acquaintance, happen to meet in an airport. The American will find her or himself backing up as the Latin American keeps trying to close the amount of space between them as they are talking. It is likely that neither will be aware of why this "dance" is happening.
- Violations of space norms create psychological discomfort for people. Each will try to obtain the distance that will allow them to be comfortable. A person that is aware of cultural differences in the norms for space should hold their position and not move if the other person gets closer or backs away. Soon, the other person will find their preferred distance, will stop moving, and will continue to converse comfortably.
- Some non-native speakers of English require more time to translate and process the meaning of communications that are in English.
- Non-native English speakers are slower to "jump" into a discussion because they are taking the time to think their ideas through, to make sure that they are communicating correctly, and to make sure that the person speaking has finished speaking.

The reasons for their resistance to verbalize within the group, to offer what may potentially be valuable input, may be misunderstood as occurring because they have nothing to contribute, or that they are in agreement with what was said.

There are many other examples of the impact culture has on cross-cultural communications and interactions. It is not possible to memorize all the possibilities for every culture. It is strongly suggested that anyone in the position of having to interact regularly with persons of another culture study that culture, its language, and try to learn as much as they can. When in doubt, ask someone from that culture to provide you with the information you need.

The absence of diversity awareness and training in culturally diverse workgroups creates more communication problems, longer decision-making times, lower member morale, increased anxiety and conflict, and lower productivity.

Final Thoughts

Sometimes valuing diversity requires looking at a situation or people in a new light. Consider the following remarks of Susan Daniels, Ph.D., commissioner for disability and income security programs, U.S. Social Security Administration; made at the International Leadership Forum for Women with Disabilities held June 15-20 1997, in Washington D.C.

> Let me ask everyone here who did not have the foresight to bring his or her own chair to stand up. Some of you are still seated. I am not going on until you are all standing.
>
> First of all, let's talk now about who has the special chairs. Who has the advantage now? Obviously, it's the people who brought their own. Aren't they smart and aren't they thrifty. Look at the rest of you here standing now. Every place you go (you standing up people) you expect somebody to provide a little shelf that you can put your tushie on don't you? How much does that chair that you were sitting on cost? That chair costs about $75. Oh, but that is not an accommodation is it? Is that an accommodation to a disability? Well, it seems to me if you had to stand the whole time you were here you would be getting a little tired. You are starting to shift your weight right now. It's hard to just stand still isn't? Stay standing, I'm not finished! Every place you go you expect other people to put a little shelf with a little back so you can rest your little back on it, so you can sit down. These cost $75 each! Now, I brought my own, I never need one of those tushie shelves that we call chairs.
>
> It's not just in this room that you expect that. You expect that in every room you go in. You expect that in the dining room, on the bus, on the Metro, in the theater. Every place you go, you expect someone to provide you with a place to sit down. You never say to yourself, do you, I wonder what it costs to accommodate my extreme verticalness? Do you? You never question that. You never say to yourself, "What does it cost to do that accommodation?" because you don't question the obvious.

Let's talk about these sign language interpreters. Now that's expensive! Let's talk about expense for just a second. I am going to step back from the microphone and right now the interpreters can hear me just fine and they are communicating with other people in the room who are using sign language. Why are they so special and this microphone and PA system isn't?

And you don't run up to me and say "gee, it was so nice of you to put that special microphone there for me so I could hear you talk." But someone might say "isn't it great that they had interpreters at the meeting," because interpreters are special. But when you need to understand and hear this conversation it isn't. You're getting tired of standing, aren't you? Stay standing, it's not time to sit down yet. I want your feet to remember this as much as your head.

Let's talk about the rest of this room, these lights, for example. Now, you thought these lights were going to be on when you came in, didn't you? You don't like being in the dark, do you? I'm asking the Interpreter to step forward now. Here's a spotlight for you. How many miles of wiring does it take to put the lights in this room and run all of them to a source of electricity some 10 miles away? We have to wire the ceiling and the walls and install all of these fixtures. For what purpose? So that these excessively dependent visioned people could feel comfortable. If you all were a union of blind folks, we wouldn't have to do all of this lighting. I've often said we could save a lot of money in the Federal Government if we only hired blind people because we could have a much smaller electricity bill.

You expect lighting, you expect chairs, you expect a very expensive accommodation to you're ordinariness. You never ask the question "how much does it cost?" Do you? Yet, when we talk about making things comfortable and easy for people who are different we have to talk about how much it costs. Well, I don't know how much it costs. How much does it cost to put an elevator in a Metro Station? I don't know. How much does an escalator cost? That's moving steps for lazy people: so I want to ask every one of you to recognize that to make an environment where everyone can function is expensive. It's expensive for the ordinary and it's expensive for the not so ordinary. We accommodate people without disabilities everyday and never question that. We say it's just the stuff that they need. Well, I hope that everyone will think of the stuff that people with disabilities need as just stuff. So, on that note, let me say "lights up and all of you getting very tired folks please accommodate yourselves to your verticalness."

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USAID website: www.info.usaid.gov/about/disability/accessibility.html

USAID website: www.usaid.gov/about/disability/2ar_imp_policy.html

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# UNIT 8: MANAGING AND LEADING CHANGE
# "THE ONE CONSTANT"

## LESSONS 1, 2, 3
## Introduction to Organizational Change, Managing Change, and Leading Change

Change is constant and everywhere. Every day, leaders and managers confront new technologies, rightsizing, new policies and procedures, reorganizations, and shifting duties and responsibilities. Experts expect the rate of change (and the resulting pressure to adapt to it) to accelerate over the next few decades. Failure to rework organizations and operating units in response to these changes can lead to sluggish performance and falling morale at best — and complete failure at worst. Unfortunately, people often deal with the need to change much too casually in order to protect themselves from its full implications. However, change is a far too pervasive and complex phenomenon to be taken lightly. Senior leaders need special skills and coping abilities to lead change efforts effectively. Successful organizational transformations do not miraculously happen — they require a great deal of hard work.

### The Nature of Change

Change is partially about perception: what one person sees as a positive change, another can see as negative. Frequently, people react to change based not only on the outcomes but also on their degree of influence in the change situation. When change seems negative, it is mainly from a perceived inability to predict and control it. People view change as unpleasant when it is unforeseen, its implications are disliked, and when people are unprepared for its consequences. Therefore, control is one factor in the evaluation of change.

Ultimately however, it does not matter whether a change is initially seen as positive or negative or even how many millions of dollars it costs. The critical factor is how disruptive and unexpected the change is to those who are involved in it. Change is minor when it does not significantly diverge from expectations. But the unexpected can be a major disruption, causing a host of negative reactions, including disorientation, anxiety, and anger. Frequently, when major disruptions impact the workplace, such negative reactions almost paralyze operations.

### The Change Process

Social psychologist Kurt Lewin's change-process model divides the change process into three stages: the *present state*, the *transition state*, and the *desired state* (see Figure 1). The present state is the status quo. When involved in a change, people move into an uncertain period — the transition state. In the transition state, people develop the new skills, attitudes, and behaviors required for the desired state.

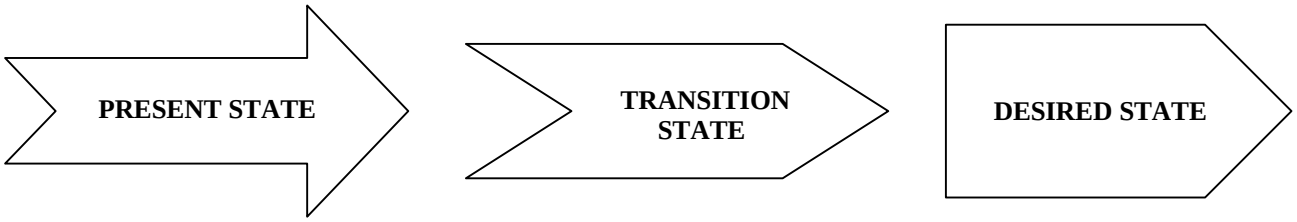


**Figure 1. The Process of Change**

To gain support for major change, the suffering associated with the present state must exceed the emotional and physical costs of the transition state. No one likes to exist in uncertainty and instability for very long. People often revert to the old ways of doing things to regain a sense of control and equilibrium, and in extremely stressful situations leaders and staff yearn for the "simplicity" of the authoritarian model. To complicate matters, during the transition state, employees must often carry on business as usual while learning new skills, adding to the stress. Therefore, senior leaders must establish and maintain a sense of urgency concerning the need for change throughout the entire change process. They must continually communicate that making changes is not just a "nice idea" — it is imperative.

## Frames of Reference

The amount of pain people can endure before moving from the present state into the transition state depends on the their frames of reference. As unconscious or semi-conscious models of the how the world works, these frames of reference determine expectations and shape experiences as the leader makes sense of new information. This process, in turn, influences the available alternatives when making a decision.

Varying frames of reference within the organization can cause terrible mistakes when implementing change, especially when leaders do not recognize the distinction between their reality and the different reality of their subordinates. Effectively managing change involves dealing with multiple realities and making decisions in light of how employees at all levels interpret them.

Thomas Edison's technique for introducing the electric light bulb provides an interesting example of how managing frames of reference can minimize the pain of transition. Because his device was such a radical change from people's perceptions about the world, Edison believed that people would initially reject his idea. To minimize public resistance, he developed lights that closely resembled the gaslights of the time. In addition to shaping the bulbs to resemble the gaslight flames, he placed fixtures on the walls rather than on the ceiling. When he introduced his innovation, people perceived very little difference from their present state. They moved easily from the present state to the desired state because Edison presented his revolutionary invention in a manner that fit their frames of reference.

## Resistance to Change

As noted earlier, resistance to change is a natural reaction to anything causing a loss of control. Most large-scale change efforts run into some type of resistance. Yet, surprisingly few organizations actually assess who might resist the change initiative — and what their reasons for resisting might be. To manage resistance, senior leaders must be able to predict what form resistance might take and develop a strategy for effectively dealing with it.

Some people resist organizational change because they perceive a personal loss of something they value (e.g., power or authority), putting their own interests before those of the total organization. Others resist change only because they do not fully understand its implications and believe the emotional and physical costs of transitioning to the desired state are much greater than the suffering of the present state. Such resistance usually occurs when there is little trust between employees and their leaders. A third reason for resistance is the fear that employees feel that they cannot develop the new skills fast enough. Finally, some employees resist change because they objectively assess the situation differently than their leaders and see more costs than benefits resulting from the change for themselves as well as for the organization. In such situations, leaders and employees have dissimilar or conflicting information, resulting in completely different evaluations. And, if the analysis done by employees is more accurate than that of the leaders, resistance is an effective response and can be good for the organization. Therefore, resistance is not always negative and should signal the need for careful diagnosis.

## Dealing with Resistance

Besides underestimating the many reasons employees resist change, leaders also underestimate their own roles to positively influence employees during a period of change.

Communication. Communicating with employees before implementing change can often reduce change resistance. Such communication can involve one-on-one discussions, group presentations, facilitation, newsletters, email messages, and reports. This strategy is especially effective when resistance is based on misunderstandings, inadequately shared information, and incomplete analysis.

Education and Facilitation. When employees resist change because they fear they will not be able to develop the required skills, formal training programs or informal mentoring and support can significantly increase employees' ability to adjust to the change.

Participation and Involvement. Involving employees early in the design and implementation of change plans is one of the most powerful strategies for minimizing resistance — and for gaining early support. Through early participation, employees

usually develop a strong sense of ownership that increases their commitment for the planned change.

Negotiation. In order to avoid major resistance, leaders may need to negotiate some "tradeoffs" with those who perceive a significant loss as a result of the proposed change.

## Moving From Resistance to Commitment

Commitment to change is the driver of all successful transformation. If key participants do not commit to change (i.e., do not devote the time, money, determination, and ingenuity needed to attain the goals of the change), the effort fails. During the change process, people experience a number of stages as they move from resistance to commitment.

1. Pre-awareness — Employees sense that something is wrong, but are not exactly sure what. Clear initial communication about why change is necessary and what it should accomplish is the key to advance employees to the next stage.
2. Awareness — Employees have a general understanding of needed changes and where the organization needs to be. However, the details of how to get there are not yet clear. Frequent communications that outline the steps necessary to move from the present state to the desired state help employees develop a complete understanding of the effort.
3. Self-Concern — Once employees comprehend a change, they are able to evaluate it. At this stage, employees wonder "How will this change affect me?" Avoid making assumptions about how employees might perceive upcoming changes. Leaders need to ask instead. They must use a variety of techniques such as written surveys, interviews, and focus groups to identify employees' motivation for change. In addition to providing valuable information, these techniques give employees an opportunity to personally contribute to the change process. The more involved they feel in shaping the change, the more easily they can commit to it.
4. Mental Tryout — At this stage, employees begin to view the change as inevitable. Concerns shift from "How will this change affect me?" to "How can I make this change benefit me?" Most change efforts require employees to modify their behavior in some manner. They must learn a new skill or change how they perform their jobs. To help them progress through this stage, senior leaders must remove obstacles such as a lack of skills or interference from the environment (e.g., lack of time, poor equipment, conflicting policies, and outdated procedures) that block behavior change.
5. Positive Perception — Although employees at this stage view the change as positive, they do not yet support it. Even positive changes require a great deal of time, energy, and resources to be successful. As a result, individuals sometimes perceive the cost of the transition to exceed the cost of maintaining the present state. Establishing and sustaining a sense of urgency is crucial at this stage. In addition, senior leaders can generate support by enabling employees to experience the change through pilot projects, prototypes, simulations, and training.

6. Commitment — When employees decide to support a change in some manner, they move into the final phase of the process — commitment. Although usually a positive development for most change projects, this stage can amplify organizational problems. For example, many changes become institutionalized when employees face severe consequences for noncompliance. In those circumstances, employees simply "do what they are told" to avoid punishment. Such an environment typically results in a half-hearted and ineffective implementation that fails to produce the desired results. However, when employees are personally committed to a change because it corresponds to their goals and values, they internalize the change and demonstrate a very high overall level of commitment leading to more effective implementation of the change.

## The Change Management Model

When Columbus set out from Spain to find a new route to China, he did not really know where he was going, he was not certain how he was going to get there, and he failed to recognize where he was once he landed ashore. Fortunately, Columbus' dangerous voyage was successful anyway. In today's fast-paced and highly competitive environment, organizations need a precise understanding of the direction of change, the means of change, and the measures of successful change — or disaster, rather than triumph, is the result.

This section introduces a change management model that enables senior leaders to effectively cope with change by identifying where the organization needs to go, by determining the best way to get there, and by effectively measuring results. The model describes a step-by-step process designed to assist senior leaders who must facilitate and adapt to rapid changes in their operating units. Figure 2 depicts the four major stages of the model: analysis, planning, implementation, and evaluation/sustainment.

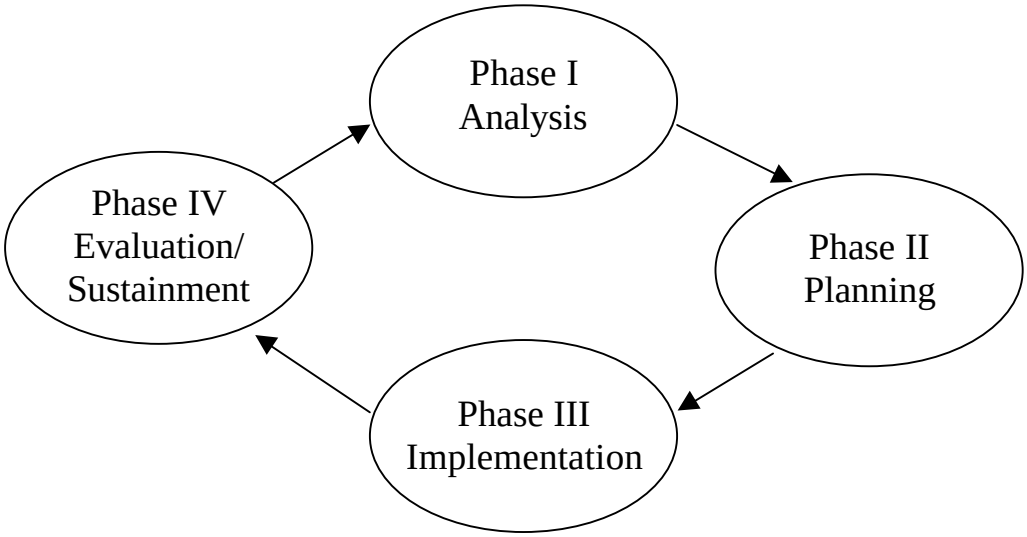


**Figure 2. The Change Management Model**

**Phase I — Analysis**

The first phase in the change management module involves analyzing the current situation and determining what changes need to be made. During this phase, senior leaders consider how the organization operates today and then they envision how it might operate far more successfully in the future. Usually a gap exists between the present and future along a number of important dimensions:

Host country and customers. The gap may include differences between the way the organization *now views* and how it *should view* its host country and customer base.

Services. Focus may include changes in the scope and variety of services the organization seeks to provide.

Business processes. The gap between the present and the future may involve the way the organization's business and operational processes need to change.

Policies, people, and reward systems. Changes in other dimensions usually generate changes in policies and procedures, the types of people needed for new roles and functions, and the systems and measures necessary to effectively reward them.

Structure and facilities. There may be a gap between the organization's structure today and its functional structure in the future.

Technologies. Rapid technological advances usually produce gaps between the information-based technologies currently in place and those needed to remain effective in the future.

SWOT Analysis

One technique for identifying gaps between "where we are now" and "where we want to be" is the SWOT Analysis (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats). Using this technique, senior leaders examine organizational strengths and weaknesses as well as any opportunities and threats at each level of operation. Below is the beginning of a SWOT analysis with typical questions:

*Strengths:*

- What are our organizational advantages?
- What do we do well?
- What can we do to improve our strengths?

*Weaknesses:*

- What could be improved?
- What is done poorly?
- What should be avoided?
- Do our customers and partners perceive weaknesses that we don't see?
- Do other international organizations or governmental agencies do better?
- What can we do turn these weaknesses into strengths?

*Opportunities:*

- What are the positive opportunities facing us at various levels?
- What are some interesting trends?
- What changes and demands can we expect over the next few years?
- What can we do to take advantage of these opportunities?

Opportunities, of course, can come from many different sources — such things as changes in technology; changes in government policy; and changes in social patterns, demographics, lifestyles, and so forth.

*Threats:*

- What major and minor obstacles do we face?
- What are other international or governmental agencies doing that affect us adversely?
- Are the required specifications for our mission changing?
- Are customer demands and characteristics changing?
- Are external developments such as economic trends affecting how we operate?

- Are technological changes threatening our position?
- What can we do to minimize or neutralize these various threats?

After identifying a threat, the leader or team should specify the problem that the threat causes for the organization (e.g., budget cuts cause poor customer service).

Identify Causes for Weaknesses and Problems

Often a number of issues and problems surface during a SWOT Analysis. The SWOT Analysis is an excellent tool for identifying **what** needs to be changed, but it does a poor job of specifying **why** a weakness or problem exists. Kaoru Ishikawa's Fishbone Diagram and Simon Majaro's Why-Why Diagram work well to further define an issue or problem.

Fishbone Diagram

The primary purpose of this technique is to identify and list all possible causes of a problem or weakness. This process is called the fishbone diagram because of the unique way in which the information is gathered and arranged visually. When the problem and its causes are recorded, they form a diagram that resembles the skeleton of a fish (See Figure 3). Listed below are the steps for applying this technique:

1. Enclose a short label of the problem in a circle on the far right side of a sheet of paper.
2. From the circle, draw a line toward the left side of the paper, creating a "backbone."
3. From the backbone line, draw short line stems at 45-degree angles.
4. Generate possible causes of the problem by brainstorming and then write the possible causes at the ends of the line stems.
5. To further breakdown the causes, draw additional lines from each of the cause stem lines, writing in more detail.
6. List simple causes at the head and the most complex causes at the tail end.

The fishbone diagram is extremely useful for identifying problems for several reasons:

- It allows problem solvers to easily see all parts of a problem before making any decisions.
- It clarifies relationships between causes and their relative importance.
- It helps to reduce the scope of a problem and promotes the solution of less complex issues first.

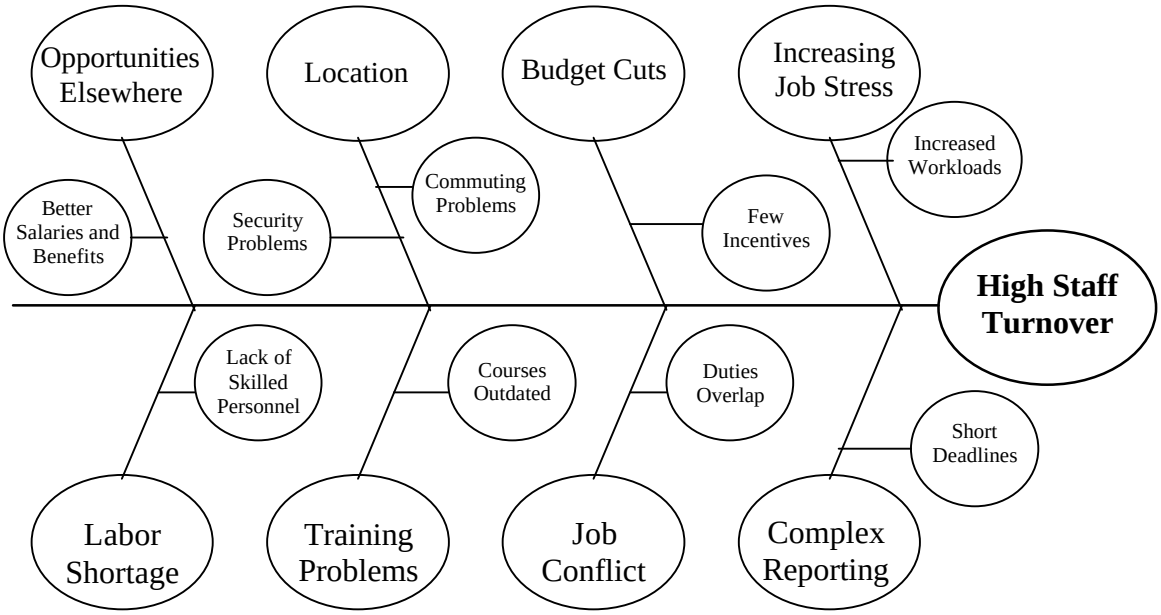


**Figure 3. Fishbone Diagram Sample**

Why-Why Diagram

Similar to the fishbone diagram, the Why-Why diagram helps to represent the causes of a problem in a clear way. However, the Why-Why diagram moves instead from left to right, with the problem written in a circle on the left side (See Figure 4). Instead of a fish skeleton, this diagram looks like a typical decision-tree with branches of causes and sub-causes written to the right of the circled problem. Problem solvers define causes for the problem statement by asking "Why?"

For example, if the problem is "High Staff Turnover," asking "Why?" reveals five possible causes: increasing job stress, staffing problems, budget cuts, opportunities elsewhere, and the location. Asking "Why?" again breaks the problem down further by revealing possible causes for the main causes. For instance, increasing job stress may be because of more work (increased workload), complex reporting, and short deadlines.

The "Why-Why" and fishbone diagramming techniques both help leaders explore a full array of causes related to a problem, without focussing prematurely on just one dimension.

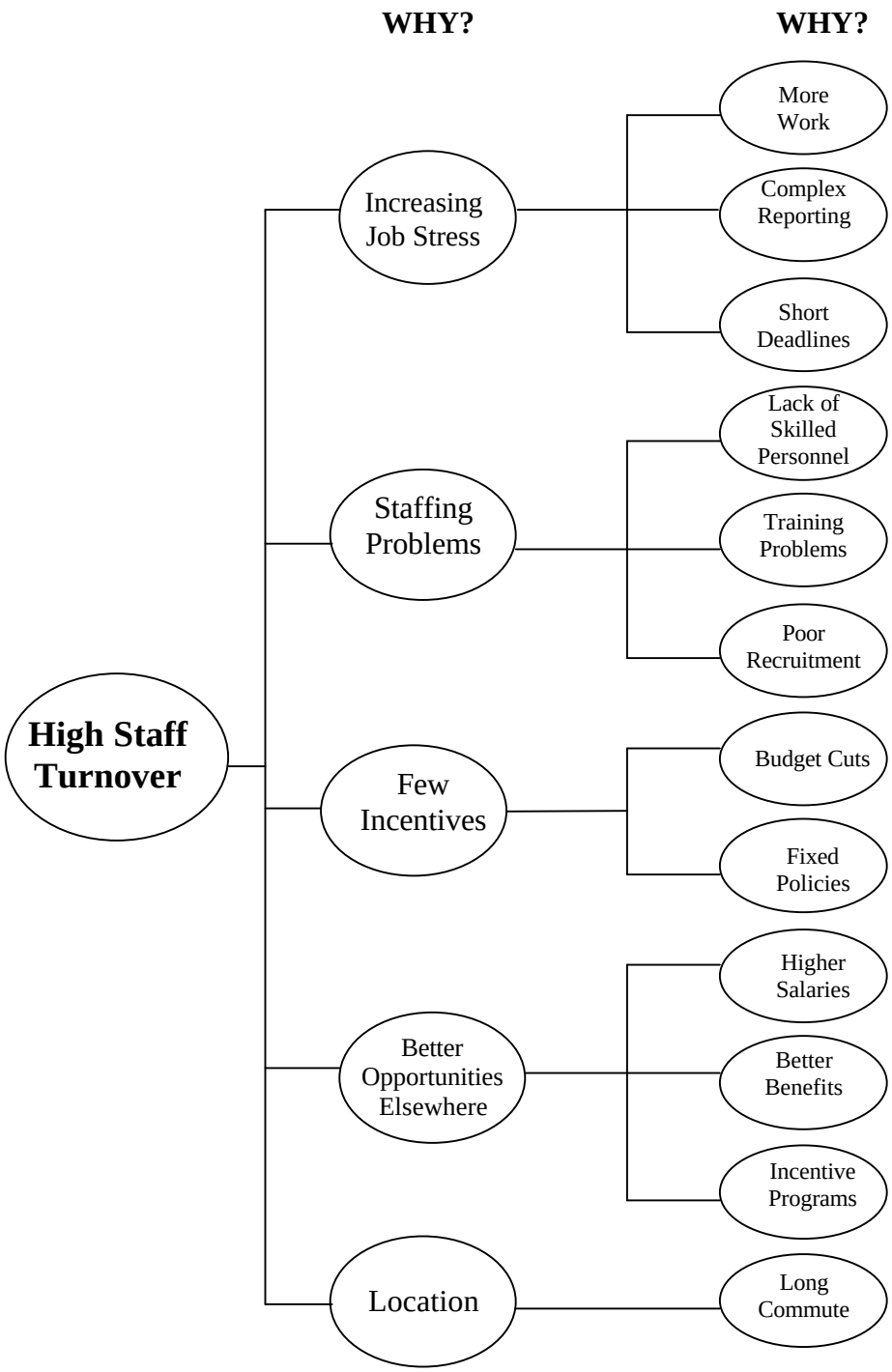


**Figure 4. Why-Why Diagram Sample**

Explore Solutions

Once a leader or team identifies a weakness, problem, or opportunity for improvement, the next step is to discover ways to fix the problem or take the greatest advantage of the opportunity. Naturally, few issues have only one correct answer or one best approach. Usually, there are arrays of possibilities. Leaders, therefore, typically use a number of techniques for generating ideas for bridging the gap between an organization's current state and the desired state.

Brainstorming

Brainstorming is such a simple and commonly used technique that many groups start using it unknowingly as soon as any problem arises. Since the purpose of brainstorming is to generate and build upon as many ideas as possible, the main role of a leader is to prevent premature closure and to ward off dismissive criticism. In fact, everyone in the group must be a "no criticism" guardian. Groups can use dry erase board, easels, or large sheets of chart paper to record ideas so all items are clearly visible to everyone. Because the real value of brainstorming occurs when someone thinks of a new idea based on another's contribution, brainstorming should remain "anything goes." Everyone should work together to establish an environment that encourages participants to contribute all ideas — no matter how bizarre or "off the wall."

Affinity Diagram

An Affinity Diagram is particularly useful when a group wants to generate ideas by keeping them ordered or grouped in some way. In large groups or with topics offering many choices, categorizing ideas as they arise can be very efficient. For example, a discussion about how to improve customer service may lead to hundreds of ideas, ranging across many different categories. An Affinity Diagram helps to organize as follows:

1. First, clearly identify the topic for discussion.
2. Next, have participants write down each idea about the topic on separate cards or self-stick notes.
3. Then, spread the notes on a table or up on a wall. Shift the notes around and arrange them in related groups.
4. Finally, as a team, discuss the groupings and the patterns they reveal — and choose the most promising lines of approach for further investigation.

Brainwriting

Brainwriting is a form of silent brainstorming that is particularly helpful when participants are uncomfortable with the speed of brainstorming or when the issue carries some conflict. Each participant divides a sheet of paper into three columns. Then, sitting in a circle, participants write down ideas for solving a given problem in the first column and pass the paper to those participants sitting to their left. Writing in the second column, everyone then builds on the ideas listed in the first column before passing the papers again to the left. In the final round, participants add to the ideas listed in the second column and then pass the papers to the group leader for discussion.

Analyze the Costs, Benefits, and Risks of Making a Change

Once an organization determines the *hows*, *whens*, *whats*, and *wheres* of change and resolving problems, the next step is to conduct a cost-benefit analysis of the proposed changes. This process involves describing, in more detail than before, the present state and the effects of the proposed change — identifying the costs and benefits of continuing with the present state, identifying the costs and benefits of making the change, and making a decision about whether to proceed with the change or to maintain the status quo. Such an analysis usually includes:

- A statement about the current state and why change is needed.
- A statement about the desired state and why it is important to reach that state.
- A statement about the proposed change and why it is the best alternative for closing the gap between the current state and the desired state.

In addition, the answers to the following questions help determine if costs and benefits make changes feasible:

- What are the costs for the organization in order to maintain the present state?
- What are the benefits for the organization to maintain the present state?
- What are the risks involved in maintaining the present state?
- What are the costs to the organization to make a proposed change?
- What are the benefits for the organization to make a proposed change?
- What are the risks involved in making a proposed change?
- What can be done to reduce risks? What are some contingency plans for dealing with potential problems?
- What internal and external factors could challenge the success of this effort?
- What economic, political, or cultural factors could affect the success of the proposed change?

Determine the Scope of the Change

Once leaders make the final decision to move forward with a proposed change, they need to fully define the parameters of the change. Defining the full scope of the proposed change involves identifying what people, processes, systems, structures, and technologies are part of the change, and in turn, require some amount of change themselves. Some questions to consider include:

- What systems need to be in place to support the change?
- What technologies need changing for an effective implementation?
- What changes in roles, responsibilities, and reporting relationships are required?
- Which current processes support the change? Which do not?
- Do current performance measures effectively evaluate the progress of the change?

Senior leaders also need to clarify the amount and extent of the change team's authority to recommend and take action as needed. For example, can the change team consider new performance measures and reward systems — or is that option unavailable? Can the team consider discontinuing all costly or ineffective programs? Can it make changes in the organizational structure?

When exploring parameters and determining the scope of change, leaders should not confine themselves to one-dimensional changes, which typically generate only modest success. Successful change projects are nearly always multi-dimensional. Usually, a fundamental change in the structure of an organization requires changes in processes and lines of command, changes in the systems and technological infrastructure that support the new configuration, and changes in performance measures and evaluation.

## Phase II — Planning

Planning is the phase in which the information gathered in the Analysis Phase is used to formulate a plan designed to bring about the desired change. The goal of planning is to translate the change requirements into a detailed, strategically sound plan to accomplish the desired change. The Planning Phase generally involves developing a vision of the change; defining goals, objectives, and strategies to achieve the vision; and developing a work plan that specifies what must be done and when.

Establish a Sense of Urgency

Senior leaders must create a sense of urgency to overcome organizational complacency and to gain cooperation for the proposed change. As stated before, people only become motivated to make major changes when the perceived pain of the present state exceeds the emotional and physical costs of the transition state. Although visible crises help to focus employees' attention and usually raise urgency levels, leaders can also successfully initiate major changes during periods of high performance and unprecedented success.

By setting ambitious performance goals and relentlessly bombarding employees with information about impending problems or potential opportunities, leaders can prime employees for additional change.

In his book *Leading Change*, John Kotter presents several ways to increase urgency levels, such as:

- Establish aggressive productivity and customer satisfaction targets employees cannot reach by business-as-usual methods.
- Hold people accountable for broad measures of operational performance rather than just their narrow functional responsibilities.
- Keep employees informed about customer satisfaction and overall performance, especially when measures are lower than expected.
- Communicate honestly about the organization's problems through a variety of media including company newsletters and presentations. Stop sending messages that "everything's great."
- Inundate employees with information about opportunities and the organization's present inability to take advantage of such opportunities.

Organize the Change Team

Because major change efforts are usually very complex endeavors, individual leaders and small functional teams rarely have all the information necessary to make effective decisions. They also do not have the authority, credibility, or resources needed to motivate others to implement changes. To be successful, a team of influential, informed, and trusted managers and leaders need to guide changes. Kotter identifies four key characteristics essential to effective change teams:

- Position Power: Are the right staff members and leaders on board? Can those left out block progress?
- Expertise: Are enough points of view represented so that adequate scope is considered and informed decisions are made?
- Credibility: Does the team have enough influence so that its communications will be taken seriously?
- Leadership: Does the group have the credible leadership necessary to implement the change?

Develop a Vision of the Future

Once a change team begins functioning, its first task is to develop and promote a shared vision of the future. During a change effort, an effective vision serves three vital purposes. First, it clearly sets the general direction of the change. Second, it motivates people to start moving in the right direction, even if the transition seems painful. Third, it helps align the activities of different employees, groups, and operating units. An effective vision:

- Communicates a vivid picture of what the future looks like and why people should work to create that future.
- Speaks to the long-term needs and goals of a variety of stakeholders including employees, customers, the Administration, Congress, the public, and host-country governments.
- Involves realistic, but ambitious goals that force people away from a state of complacency.
- Provides clear guidance on what actions are important.
- Provides enough flexibility to allow for individual initiative and changing conditions.
- Can be successfully explained in minutes, rather than hours.

One U.S. insurance company developed the following effective vision for a major organizational change:

> It is our goal to become the world leader in our industry within ten years. As we use this term, *leadership* means more revenue, more profit, more innovation that serves our customers' needs, and a more attractive place to work than any other competitor. Achieving this ambitious objective will probably require double-digit revenue and profit growth each year. It will surely require that we become less U.S. oriented, more externally focused, considerably less bureaucratic, and more of a service instead of a product company. We sincerely believe that if we work together we can achieve this change, and in the process create a firm that will be admired by stockholders, customers, employees, and communities. (Kotter, J. P. *Leading Change*, 1996)

For a smaller change effort, an effective vision might resemble the following example:

> The vision driving our department's reengineering effort is simple. We want to reduce our costs by at least 30 percent and increase the speed with which we can respond to customers by at least 40 percent. These are stretch goals, but we know based on the pilot project in Austin that they are achievable if we all work together. When this is completed, in approximately three years, we will have leapfrogged our biggest competitors and achieved all the associated benefits — better satisfied customers, increased revenue growth, more job security, and the enormous pride that comes from great accomplishments. (Kotter, J.P. *Leading Change*, 1996)

Creating an effective vision should always involve a group of people. However, a good strategy for jump-starting the process is to assign a single individual to develop the first draft. The change team then discusses the original ideas and makes modifications. Although this seems like a simple plan, it takes effective teamwork and a lot of time — sometimes months.

Establish Goals and Objectives

Once the big picture of the desired future state of the organization or operating unit is firmly in mind, the next task is to establish goals and objectives for the change effort. These goals must match the envisioned change and be consistent with the needs uncovered in the Analysis Phase. They must be explicit, meaningful, and measurable. They must also consider both the desired outcomes of the project and the actions necessary to achieve goal attainment. Once they are set, they become the road markers on the highway toward the envisioned change.

Information gathered during the Analysis Phase may provide ideas on specific goals and objectives for the change program. Other questions to consider when setting goals and objectives are:

- What specific outcomes are expected and desired?
- What should the project achieve?
- What, if any, operational results are expected as a result of this change?
- In what ways will this change benefit the organization?

Identify and Assess Stakeholders' Positions

Stakeholders are individuals or groups that can influence change — or those who might directly experience the effects of change. Stakeholders can include groups and individuals both within and outside the organization such as:

- Employees. Employees always come to mind first when considering stakeholders in a major change effort. To get a clear picture of various perspectives, ask questions such as: Will operations go along with this? How will the field agents react to this change? How will Josef Rogers react to these changes? Will Uma Mathur feel threatened?
- Customers. By asking customers what they need, and just as important, what they don't need, senior leaders can focus their efforts on activities that add value.
- Sponsors. A sponsor is an important leader or group that has the power to legitimize and enforce change. Sponsors consider organizational problems and opportunities and support the changes that can meet the challenges most effectively. They essentially decide what changes to support, and then communicate the new direction to the organization.

- Agents. Agents are responsible for executing changes. To be successful, agents must be able to analyze potential problems, develop a plan for managing the process, and implement the changes effectively.
- Partners. Partners who are knowledgeable about the organization bring important resources to the change process. Often, they have important benchmarking information about what similar organizations are experiencing.
- The Administration, State Department, Congress. Senior leaders must consider which political bodies have a direct interest or link to the change.
- Host Country and Public Reaction. When considering changes that may have an impact outside the organization, it is critical to consider host country and public reactions to the change effort.

Stakeholder Map

One easy way to identify stakeholders is to make a Stakeholder Map as follows:

- List all the people from whom approval is needed.
- Next, list everyone, individuals as well as groups, affected by the change.
- Rate each stakeholders' commitment as positive (+), neutral (0), negative (-), or don't know (?). Imagine being in each person's place to help with the rating.
- Draw the actual Stakeholder Map (See Figure 5).
    - Use circles to represent stakeholders who are likely to support the change effort.
    - Use triangles for those likely to comply but not actively advocate the change.
    - Use squares for those likely to oppose.
    - Draw nothing around those requiring more information to categorize.
    - Place the stakeholders with the most influence over the success or failure of the change initiative close to the center of the map.

Continue to collect information and update the map throughout the change process.

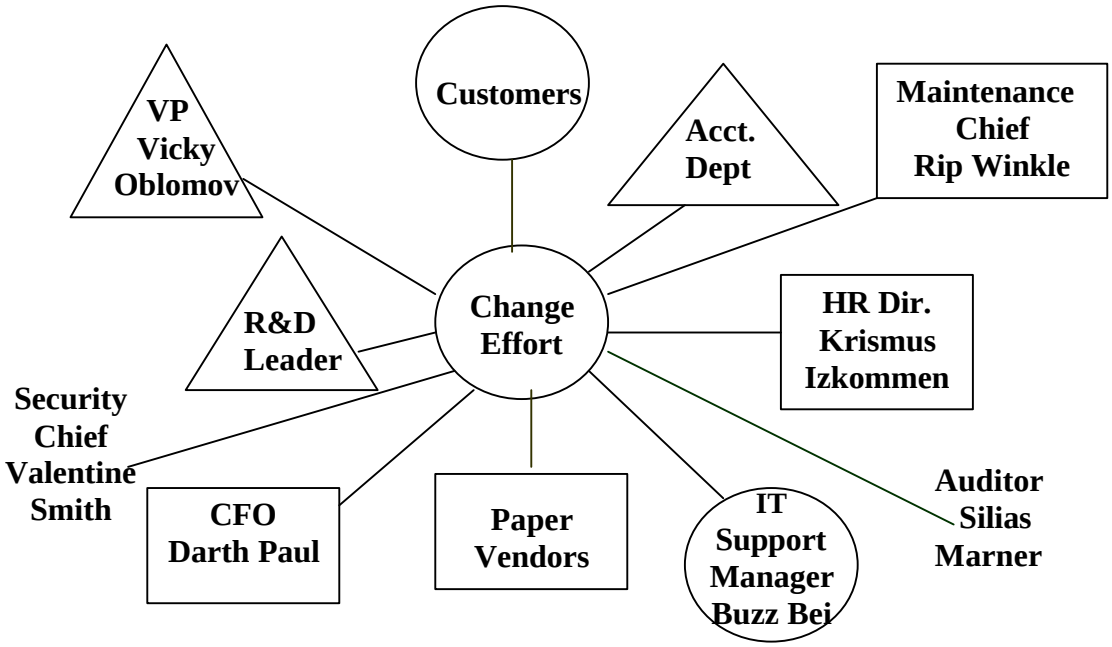


**Figure 5. Stakeholder Map Sample**

[derived from Lepsinger, R. & Lucia, A. (1998) *Creating champions for 360-degree feedback*, p. 50]

Evaluate Stakeholders' Positions

The more senior leaders know about stakeholders, the better they can influence and motivate them. Identify their interests and frames of reference and document a specific action plan for bringing each constituency in agreement with the change effort. Generally, stakeholders concern themselves with the following two questions:

1. *How does this affect me?* Stakeholders evaluate change efforts in terms of perceived wins and feared losses. It is dangerous to make assumptions about how stakeholders might perceive upcoming changes. It is best to ask.
2. *What do I think of the people in charge?* How well stakeholders relate to the change leaders often determines success or failure. It takes a highly respected and knowledgeable change team to influence and motivate stakeholders throughout the process.

Although written surveys and interviews are good, using focus groups is also an excellent technique for uncovering stakeholder motivation. Such immediate group feedback can often provide both broad and in-depth insight into issues, allowing hundreds of stakeholders to contribute. Naturally, the more stakeholders feel involved in shaping changes, the more prepared they are to commit to such changes.

In addition to focus groups, senior leaders can rally support by appealing directly to the self interests of the most influential stakeholders. By getting highly influential individuals on board early in the process, senior leaders build momentum for the change program.

Identify Strategies for Implementing the Change

To specify a clear implementation plan, decisions about what, when, where and how this will happen need to be made. The How-How diagram is one effective technique for developing implementation strategies.

How-How Diagram

A complement to the Why-Why diagram, Majaro's How-How diagram represents the necessary steps in implementing a solution. Placement of the proposed solution is on the left side of a sheet of paper with the detailed actions on the right in the same decision-tree format as the Why-Why diagram (See Figure 6). With each listed solution, we ask "How?" Questioning "How?" continues with actions becoming more detailed on the right side of the diagram.

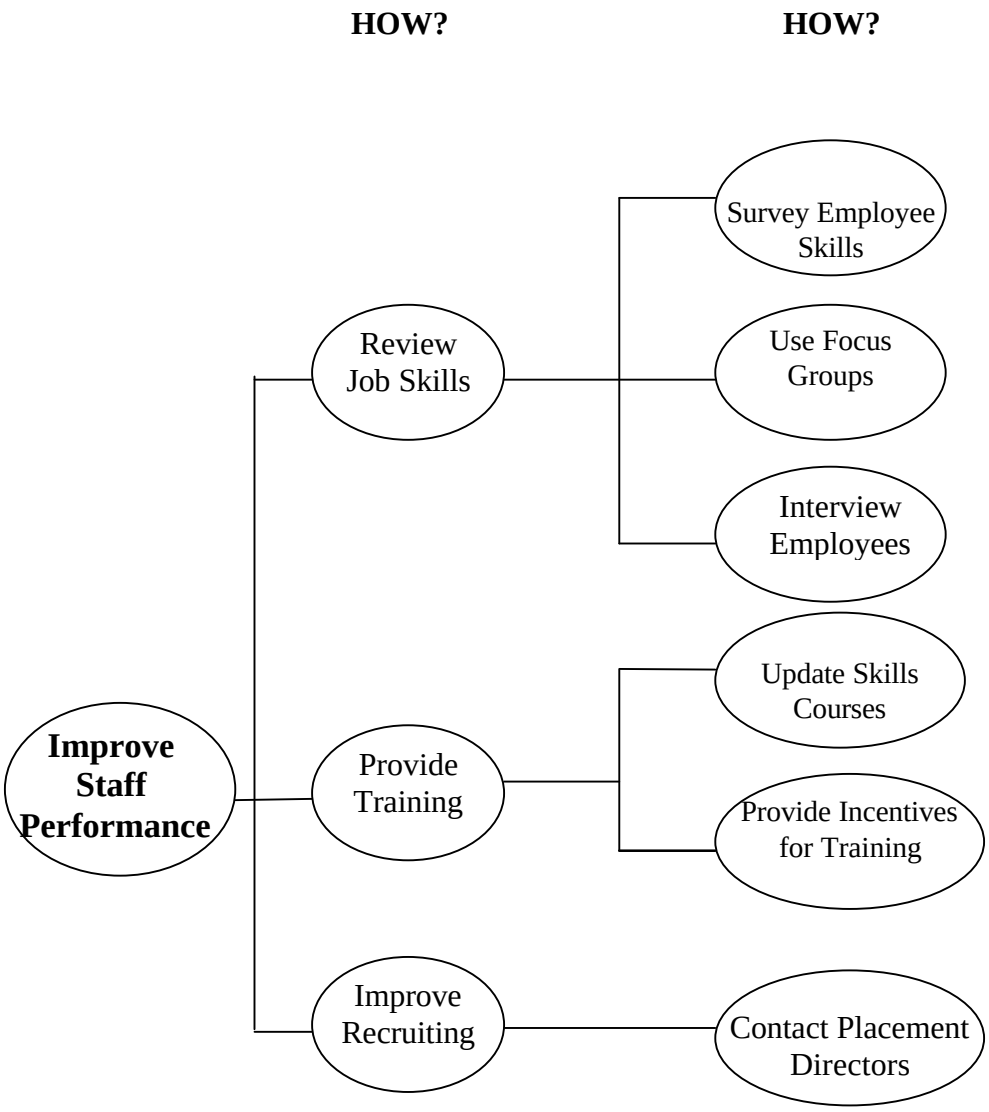


**Figure 6. How-How Diagram Sample**

Develop the Work Plan

After identifying the implementation strategies, it is time to identify in greater detail the tasks needed for the change effort. Change programs can easily fail when significant oversights occur, such as underestimating the costs or time needed for implementation. Therefore, a critical step in the planning phase is the development of a detailed work plan that breaks complicated tasks down into smaller ones. Time and cost estimates on smaller tasks are usually more accurate than on large complicated activities.

Breaking Down the Work

For change projects, work is typically defined using three or four levels:

Program
Project
Task
Subtask

Not all change projects need to be broken down to the same level, but such a formal structure helps to avoid missing any steps for critical tasks. Since one rule of thumb is to break down the work to a level sufficient to achieve scheduling accuracy, one effort may take four levels, while another may need only two.

To develop the breakdown structure, brainstorm all the activities involved in the change program. A good start, for example, is to refer to the information identified in a How-How diagram. After identifying activities, order them according to what must be done first, second, etc. Though sometimes order is irrelevant, leaders must carefully identify dependent activities that drive the program's schedule and timeline for completion.

In a brainstorming session, a change team can write key activities at the tops of large sheets of easel-chart paper and post the subtasks to each (using self-stick notes or markers) and then order them according to time sequence. When identifying activities and tasks, the team should also identify any deliverables (any tangible work products such as documents) associated with the project or task. To easily distinguish activities from deliverables during the brainstorming process, use different color self-stick notes or markers.

After the team identifies tasks and subtasks, individual team members need to accept assignments for the tasks. Then the assigned members estimate how long it takes to perform their tasks. After gathering estimates from team members, one member or the leader enters the information into a scheduling software package (e.g., Microsoft Project) and develops a chart displaying start and finish dates for each task.

Develop Performance Measures and Link Rewards

Without implementing proper performance measures, change projects often fail to have a major impact. Task-focused measures make it possible to gage whether an organization is operating according to its overall strategies. However, the most important reason to use performance measures is that they can help initiate targeted changes. Many strategies are conceptual and too broad to provide daily guidance, but performance measures are particular and clear. Performance measures send obvious signals to employees about what is important, especially when there are obvious links to reward and compensation systems.

Choosing Measures

To develop a balanced set of internally and externally focused measures that together effectively describe what is happening in the organization or operating unit, leaders can begin by taking an inventory of the organization's current collection of performance measures. Then they map them to the organization's vision and its strategies for achieving the vision. Often, a significant percentage of measures fail to support the current strategies, goals, and objectives — and particularly change efforts. Senior leaders should discard any measures that are not relevant or that distort actual achievement.

When considering new measures, leaders should seek input from all areas of the organization — and should develop performance measures for all cross-functional business processes, including staff development programs.

For each proposed measure, develop a brief definition of its purpose and examine each for:

- Relevancy — Is the measure directly related to the vision, strategy, and change objectives?
- Reliability — Does the measure truly identify strengths and weaknesses clearly and dependably?
- Self-evident name — Does the measure's name alone express its purpose?
- Availability of data — How easily and inexpensively can the data for computing the measure be collected?

Identify Short-Term Wins

Major change takes time and usually a considerable amount of money. Although true believers generally stay the course throughout, most people want to see strong evidence that the project is improving performance. The last step in the Planning Phase is to identify short-term wins to build credibility for the project over the long term.

Effective short-term wins are highly visible, unambiguous, and directly relate to the change effort. By demonstrating that the sacrifices are paying off and the organization is getting stronger, short-term wins help build momentum for the program. Short-term wins help gather more supporters, and turn passive supporters into active participants.

## Phase III — Implementation

During the Implementation Phase, senior leaders execute the procedures and strategies detailed during the Planning Phase and remove any obstacles blocking progress.

Communicate the Change

The first task in the Implementation Phase is to communicate the change. Communicating the right message increases the probability of the change effort's success. Senior leaders need to identify exactly what they want their audience to learn from the message, addressing employees' real concerns and connecting to employees' shared values.

Objectives, Concerns, and Values

A common mistake change leaders make when delivering a change message is to deliver the *same* (or similar) message to key managers, customers, community members, and employees alike. However, each group has different needs, and often it is the employees' needs that are least met. When delivering a change message to employees, leaders need to rethink the message in terms of what they want the employees to be able to do after hearing the message, such as:

- Understand the overall strategy.
- Fully appreciate the context of change.
- Relate their work to the change.
- Find personal value in the tasks involved in the change.
- Commit to their actions for implementing the change.

While change leaders usually explain the first two objectives ("Understand the overall strategy" and "Fully appreciate the context of change") clearly, they can be vague about helping employees to visualize their contributions or helping them to perceive personal value in the proposed change. For a message to be effective, senior leaders need to directly address employees' concerns. The change team can identify some of these concerns by brainstorming responses to questions that employees are likely to ask. Frequent questions include:

- Will there be temporary cutbacks in jobs or permanent layoffs? (If yes, related questions then follow.)
- Why were we allowed to operate in the old way — the wrong way — for so long?
- Is this change related to previous changes — ones that didn't work?
- What operations and things stay the same?
- How does this change relate to our mission and vision, to our values and commitments?
- In what ways will the organization change in six months? After a year?
- Exactly how will we personally benefit from the change? Lose from the change?

- What kind of support can we expect to implement the change?
- Precisely what will leaders be doing to ensure that the proposed change really works?

Because employees usually do not express their concerns in large meetings, senior leaders need to focus on employees' concerns when conveying the change message. By openly addressing such concerns, senior leaders demonstrate their understanding of the impact of the change. As a result, points of resistance and conflict emerge earlier and may allow a quick resolution or some negotiating. Avoiding such concerns, only postpones problems until later — when, in fact, they may be too big to manage properly.

In addition, one of the biggest concerns among employees is how a change is consistent with the values of the organization, because such values often directly link organizational vision with employees' contributions. When a change violates traditional operational values, the bond of trust between leaders and employees appears broken. Some of the values employees tend to hold in the context of an organizational change include:

- Everybody's past experience still counts.
- Our contributions in the past remain important and valuable.
- Our concern is for the good of the organization/operating unit.
- We value each other and encourage each other to succeed.
- Over the years, we've learned how to handle major challenges.

Therefore, to be effective, the change message must communicate how the change connects with these values and experiences. It should first reflect on past experience and then move to the present and the future. Frequently, change leaders focus their excitement only on the future and ignore or actually denigrate the past. As a result, they fail to connect to the values that guide employees' perception of what they do and how they fit in the organization.

Kramlinger's example of an effective change message shows the right way to begin a change message — by relating a new change with the changes of the past:

> You know, this transition we're going through isn't all that different from what we have experienced in the past. It's an inevitable change. Many of you even predicted it. In fact, we based our decision on your input. Furthermore, it's just like what our founders did during their first downturn and what you yourselves did just last year. This is another opportunity to use the talent and experience we developed at that time.
>
> (Kramlinger, T. (1998) "How to deliver a change message." *Training and Development*, 52-4, p. 44)

Only after the leader acknowledges links to the past does the message move to the present and future.

Message-Acceptance Strategies

Other key strategies for enhancing the acceptance of a change message include:

- Encourage feedback. Senior leaders need honest feedback from their staff about proposed changes. Not only do employees need answers to their questions to work effectively, but leaders need to discover negative reactions as early as possible. By genuinely welcoming negative or even emotional feedback, senior leaders show that they are not afraid to confront all the issues involved in the change — which they are truly committed to change "no matter what."
- Repeat the message. Giving the message once is not enough. Leaders need to repeat the message enough times to guarantee that no one forgets the message. Repetition also encourages employees to think: "This change must be real."
- Use several different forums. Besides large group meetings, use informal one-on-one talks, web sites, video conferencing, team meetings, newsletters, posters, email, and so forth.
- Make the message as visual or hands-on as possible. The use of charts, models, pilot programs, computer simulations, and other materials and exercises help employees visualize the change. Early experience with the new configuration of processes, tools, systems, and technologies also makes the change "real" to employees.
- Keep it consistent. To maintain credibility with employees, senior leaders must keep all messages consistent. Inconsistencies confuse and eventually paralyze staff.
- Assign responsibility for communications. Since communication is often a full-time responsibility, a senior leader should appoint someone close to the action to gather feedback from employees and to answer concerns as they arise.
- Practice the change. When senior leaders live the change, employees develop trust in the new direction. Senior leaders must exhibit both substantive and symbolic behavior that reinforces the new change values.

Remove Obstacles to Change

Most change efforts require changed behavior from employees — learning a new skill, changing procedures, or just adjusting to less resources. Most importantly, senior leaders must remove obstacles that block or slow down change. Obstacles include lack of skills (the knowledge and information needed); poor motivation; interference from the workplace environment, from tools, or traditional processes or procedures; lack of clear incentives; and poor or isolated leadership. Questions to consider for such obstacles follow:

- Skills, Knowledge, and Information
  - Can present employees learn the new skills needed?
  - Can they also perform related tasks?
  - Do they have all the information required to use the new skills effectively?
  - Do training programs need upgrading?

- Motivation
  - Do employees see a direct connection between changing behavior and rewards?
  - Do they understand the answer to the question: "What's in it for me?"
  - Do employees feel confident about performing the new behaviors?
  - Do employees agree fundamentally with the new values and concepts?

- Environment, Tools, and Processes
  - Will employees be able to immediately apply their new skills?
  - Is there adequate time to perform the new skills and behaviors?
  - Does the physical setup of the workplace hinder performance? Are all the technologies and pieces of equipment in place?
  - Do any internal processes, procedures, or structures impede or conflict with the performance of new skills?
  - Do employees have necessary authority to perform the full range of their new tasks?

- Incentives
  - Are employees really rewarded for performing new skills?
  - Or are employees still rewarded (or rewarded more) for behaving as they did in the past?

- Leadership
  - How frequently do employees receive feedback on the performance of their new skills and behaviors?
  - Do managers and leaders model and support the new skills and behaviors?
  - Do managers and leaders coach, mentor, and directly encourage employees in using the new skills and behaviors?

Get People Involved in the Change

Through participation and early involvement in the change program, employees develop a personal sense of ownership that increases their overall commitment to the change effort. Rather than perceiving the change as something that someone is doing to them, they see it as something they had a hand in creating. For example, when the Minnesota Department of Administration faced a major restructuring, change leaders invited state employees to submit project proposals to improve that agency's performance with three constraints. First, proposals had to promote specific and measurable results. Second, proposals had to use existing resources. Third, the proposals had to use the new concepts that the change leaders encouraged. By getting employees involved, change leaders gained the commitment they needed to succeed. The program, Striving Toward Excellence in Performance, ultimately won national recognition.

Another success involving employee participation is Kodak's Black & White Film Manufacturing Division. Black & White used improvisation and experimentation to encourage employee involvement. Rather than develop a single vision statement for the division, leaders invited small groups of supervisors and employees to participate. The result was dozens of small visions involving relevant and important performance goals, such as "One Day" for reducing processing time. Not only did employees feel a sense of ownership for these small visions, but the visions also had a direct connection to what they did on a day-to-day basis. Employees could visualize how their performance impacted the success of the organization.

Participation builds understanding. It is a key strategy for overcoming resistance to change. Moreover, employees often have excellent ideas on ways to improve processes and procedures.

**Phase IV — Evaluation and Sustainment**

Change management plans need systematic monitoring to ensure they work as anticipated. Organizations need to conduct evaluations frequently, especially within the first six months of any major change.

Gather Data

Systematically collecting data about performance is the first step during the Evaluation and Sustainment Phase. Leaders need to review the performance measures identified in the Analysis Phase of the change process. Has performance improved, stayed the same, or declined? Next, leaders evaluate the feedback from employees and other stakeholder groups through surveys, focus groups, and individual interviews. Their reactions to the changes should help identify any remaining obstacles blocking progress. Their input about what is working and what is not may be the basis for a change in tactics.

Refine the Original Approach

Evaluation almost always leads to refinement at some level. The biggest challenge to refinement and adjustment of the original change plan, however, is to make alterations without disillusioning employees. Modifications must always appear to be a natural outcome of the review process — and employees should expect regular adjustments without thinking that the change plan failed. To make successful modifications and refinements, senior leaders must regularly remind employees that refinement and improvement — changes in the plans — are a normal part of the change process throughout.

One key strategy for setting this expectation is the concept of a learning organization. A learning organization has an greater capacity to learn, adapt, and change than ordinary organizations. Through learning, employees gain the knowledge, skills, and confidence needed to move from the present state into the transition and desired states. In learning organizations, learning is both a product of change and the inspiration for change. Change becomes the norm rather than the exception as employees continuously seek ways to improve performance. As an organization develops its learning abilities, it becomes more resilient and capable of handling further changes.

Sustain the Change

Beyond evaluation and refinement, the final step in the change management process is converting the new strategy, structure, and values into cornerstones of the organizational culture. There are two basic ways to aid this process.

Communication

Because the success of any change effort is still uncertain even at this stage, Senior leaders need to communicate every incident that demonstrates how the new way of doing things is superior to the old methods. Leaders must continue to promote all short-term wins. Public recognition and reward for those who demonstrate the new values and behaviors are essential. Senior leaders should aggressively seek out small victories and subtle successes, and transform such events into the symbolic stories that reinforce the vision of the new organization.

Human Resource Practices

The second way to sustain change is through improved human resource practices. Senior leaders and managers must develop policies, procedures, and practices that promote and support the new organizational environment. It is critical that systems for measuring and evaluating performance, compensating and rewarding achievements, selecting and promoting personnel, developing skills and abilities, and socializing new hires align with the change agenda. To ensure success, leaders also need to involve experienced and influential HR people early in the process and make them full partners in the change.

## Leading Change

Clearly, leading a successful change effort requires energy, courage, vision, and commitment. Many related tasks require constant attention, and setbacks and minor failures are inevitable. So how can senior leaders stay on the right road when faced with bewildering forks in the road? In *Champions of Change*, David Nadler offers five guiding principles for planning, implementing, and sustaining major organizational change.

Ensure Appropriate Involvement — A major change effort cannot succeed if leaders fail to involve the key people responsible for making it happen.

Exercise Committed Leadership — Leaders cannot assign their leadership responsibilities to others. Leaders must actively, passionately, and personally involve themselves in organizational change.

Provide Valid Information — Information must be available to everyone involved in making key decisions. Even unlikely information sources need to be available. It also means sharing both good and bad news and always being honest.

Make Informed Choices — Leaders should not rush to closure. They should reserve judgment until a range of alternative solutions emerge from investigations. In change situations, leaders need to actively engage in open discussions about a wide range of alternatives.

Construct Integrated Change — To change complex organizations, senior leaders must consider many aspects — overall strategy, new structures, training for staff, altered processes, and new operating environments. For example, redesigning processes involves redesigning jobs and procedures, changing the systems and technologies that support these processes, training people to perform different tasks, and removing barriers to change. Isolated changes, on the other hand, have little chance of success. Therefore, detailed, planned, and integrated change is the approach that successful organizational leaders normally choose.

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## LESSON 4
## Personal Change: "Living with Chaos"

*"Ignoring risks doesn't make them go away; it only increases the danger."*
— Kline and Saunders

### Individual Risk in the midst of Organizational/Operating Unit Change

Most meaningful endeavors begin with a risk, whether it is exploring a new country, building a mission, launching a new career, or getting married. Any organization with an ambitious vision deals with risk. The work of USAID in foreign, and sometimes dangerous countries, involves risk. The issues of risk and risk management are complex and apply both to organizations and to individuals.

(**Note:** in this portion of the pre-work, references to "organization" also apply to "operating unit.")

In order to put the issues involved in risk and risk management into perspective, it is helpful to understand the concept of risk as it relates to organizational development. The two sections that follow present organizational change and development from slightly different perspectives. The first addresses risk, change, and progress through the analogy of four different organizational groups. The second addresses the lifecycle of an organization from vision to renewal.

The people who make innovative organizations function understand the dynamics of how organizations interact with their environment. They also understand how risk, change, vision, and renewal relate to ongoing organizational development. In addition, members of an innovative organization usually have a stake in the life and health of an organization — and feel personally accountable for it.

### From Pioneers to Homesteaders

Organizations go through lifecycles just as people go through life changes and cycles in human development. The Pioneers-to-Homesteaders analogy is a paradigm that conveys how organizational lifecycles affect empowerment goals, risk taking, motivations, and values. This paradigm uses the analogy of four groups who help develop a new territory: discoverers, pioneers, settlers, and homesteaders. The descriptions for each group and how they each relate to organizational and personal change follow.

**Discoverers** are the people who originally discover and explore new territories. They are the rugged visionaries who are not afraid of challenges and risk. They often venture forth because of the poor conditions of their places of origin and the confines of old ways in search of new opportunities. In the past, they were the heroic sailors, explorers, frontiersmen, and mountain men. More recently, these are the founders and original visionaries of organizations.

**Pioneers** are the people who come right after the discoverers and claim a piece of territory for themselves. Pioneers are willing to suffer hardship and sacrifice to carve out habitable places in the wilderness. These people adapt to harsh conditions and get used to doing everything themselves. Most organizations know who their pioneers are — the people who have been there from the start and know the full history of the organization. Those who "remember when . . . ."

**Settlers** come to help build and develop the towns, new schools, and businesses. They help establish law and order. With settlers comes the need for formal organizations, associations, and rules. Like the pioneers, settlers are self-starters who bring jobs and livelihoods with them. But whereas pioneers are used to doing everything for themselves, settlers demand more services and initiate specialization and bring diversification. In organizations, the settlers are often the most loyal of all the groups; pioneers, for example, are likely to just launch out into another pioneering venture, and discoverers frequently lose interest in anything established. However, settlers see themselves as those who continue to build and sustain organizations.

**Homesteaders** come after most of the basic foundation work is complete. They come to use the established schools and businesses. The homesteaders generally avoid the hardship, risk and uncertainty that previous groups faced. The term *homesteader* in the United States originally referred to people who were granted free land by the government to promote the development of new communities. Unlike groups before them, the homesteaders usually expect jobs and services to be already available. Homesteaders understand the current value of an organization — and how it functions. They have little interest in the past or in the visionary future. Their very practical orientation is toward benefits here and now and in the immediate future. Homesteaders sense that they work *for* the organization.

Each of the groups has a distinct profile. In organizations, the amount of time spent with the organization often determines to which group anyone belongs (discoverer, pioneer, settler, or homesteader). Associated with each group is a particular set of motivations, goals, values, attitudes, and expectations. Each group also has a certain subjective view of the other groups, which sometimes produces conflict.

For example, the pioneers in an organization often strongly resent the homesteaders (or the "new people" or "younger generation") for having it so easy. Pioneers frequently feel that they did all the hard work — and now the new people are unfairly sharing in the resulting benefits. Similarly, homesteaders may believe that pioneers are holding back progress or deliberately blocking them (homesteaders) from advancement opportunities.

This four-group paradigm helps to reveal other functional motivations and values as well. For instance, discoverer-types are not always good at sustaining efforts the way settlers are. Discoverers want to move on to new challenges and discoveries. They like the adventure and risk of the unknown. Naturally, settlers are better at building and maintaining the ideas of discoverers than discoverers usually are; differing abilities seem inherent in the different ways these two groups function. The goal of settlers is to establish and make secure — they do not value continual re-inventing and innovation the way discoverers do. Because of their functional positions, it is difficult for each group to truly value the other groups' strengths.

Ironically, these functional roles sometimes evolve over time. For instance, in the early stages of the organization, everyone may have to function as a pioneer — where all have to sacrifice and do everything for themselves. However, as the organization grows and reaches a stage where the settlers and homesteaders join, some of the original pioneers begin to realize that only some of them are real pioneers and that others only took on the pioneer role out of necessity. At such points, some pioneers decide to reap the rewards of the organization's growth and become settlers or even homesteaders instead. Other pioneers realize that they need new challenges or new territories to explore. By applying this four-group paradigm organizationally, leaders can understand more clearly the roles that staff are most comfortable playing.

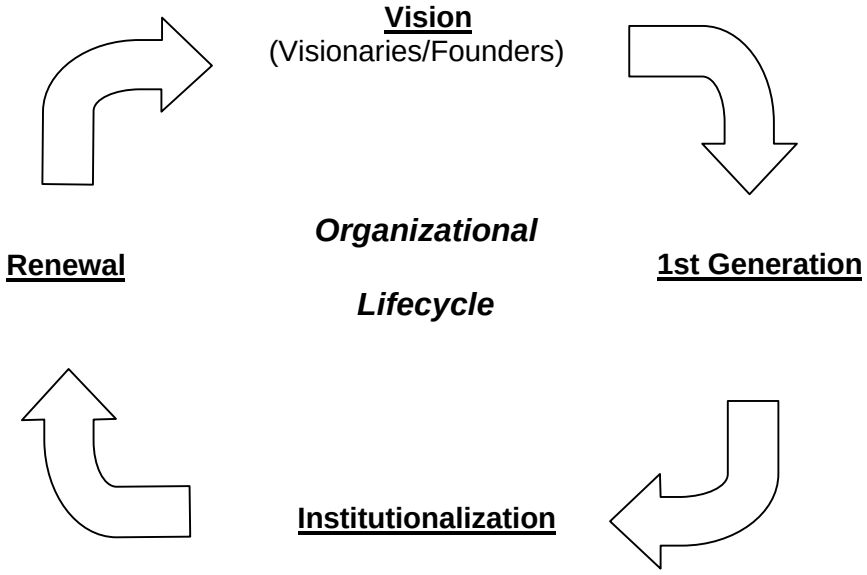
Understanding roles also helps avoid rashly misinterpreting one's own or another's actions. Sometimes, for example, people leave organizations but misinterpret their own reasons for leaving. Someone who has been at an organization for a long time may decide to leave an organization because "the organization has grown too large," "people aren't as friendly as they use to be," or the person remembers when "we used to be one big family." So the person leaves and goes to a new, perhaps smaller organization. Actually, nothing may be wrong with the larger organization. This person may really just be a pioneer-type who prefers the startup work and groundbreaking atmosphere of a brand new enterprise.

It is easy for pioneers and settlers to feel that homesteaders do not share the same values as they do — that they lack the risk-taking, adventurous spirit. Both groups commonly see the homesteaders as less committed, lacking in a strong work ethic, or unwilling to sacrifice comfort. Actually, there may be a more complex set of factors at work. Homesteaders often greatly value home, family relationships, and leisure time — directly reacting to previous generations that seem to value work more than home and family. Or, homesteaders may just feel that there are few new territories, far less opportunities available — and look to other institutions for opportunities and personal challenge.

## Organizational Lifecycles

Another analogy for organizational change involves the cycle of vision and renewal. In this fast-paced age of organizational mergers, takeovers, and bankruptcies, organizations and companies can fail for any number of reasons — some intentional, some unintentional. The need for change and adaptation, therefore, is extremely important to organizational survival.

The cycle shown below is a representation of the four basic phases of an organization's life. Organizations usually begin with a "vision," some goal or mission to accomplish. In most cases, there is a Visionary/Founder who begins to pursue a personal dream. The visionary takes risks by courageously beginning a new enterprise. Usually, the visionary leader is unaware of why the venture is "impossible," often underestimating the obstacles or the amount of work necessary to achieve the vision. And despite a high rate of failure, visionaries do succeed, and their achievements can have far reaching, sometimes world-historical results.




The next phase in the cycle is "First Generation Growth," the initial period of growth when the visionary founders and first few employees enlist others to join the startup venture. These are the struggling but "glory days" of the organization. In many family businesses, for example, the first generation is literally the children of the founding father and mother. The first generation of people have a direct connection to the original visionary founders, often with daily personal contact — and experience the initial clarity of vision and purpose of the new venture.

The next stage is "Institutionalization." This stage marks a time when an organization becomes established and is more concerned with perpetuating itself than with doing what it originally set out to accomplish. Becoming an institution is not a bad thing, but *institutionalization* often is. The time at which this happens in an organization varies. Usually, however, it directly follows the time when the founding visionary and most of the original generation are gone. When no one left in the organization has a direct personal connection to the original founders, the original vision may be lost.

The choices, then, are basically three: to maintain the status quo, dissolve the organization, or to renew. It is fortunate if an organization has the self-awareness to know that it needs to make such a decision. Positive change begins with a renewal effort that directly entails a return to vision (either the original vision or an updated one). Then the cycle begins again.

Both vision and renewal phases involve risk. The startup, founding, and initial growth involves obvious risk. Renewal involves risk in a different fashion. The risks of renewal and change involve a disruption of the status quo and of institutional maintenance that often characterize large, established organizations. For meaningful change to take place in organizations, courageous individuals must be willing to speak out, question, offer alternative solutions — and launch campaigns for widespread organizational renewal.

## Change Management — Resistance or Resilience

People react to change in two basic ways: resistance or resilience. Though resistance is a universal phenomenon, if allowed to persist unchecked, resistance can undermine change efforts. People tend to react to change with fear or doubt because change poses a threat to the balance and stability of life. However, since change is such a common occurrence, leaders can benefit by learning a personal change-management strategy that builds resilience rather than resistance.

Resilience is the ability of individuals to respond flexibly to change, fluctuations, and uncertainty in the environment. To build resilience, leaders must reduce resistance first.

### Steps for Reducing Resistance

Some steps for reducing resistance to change include:

1. Assess yourself — know your personality and reaction tendencies.
2. Assess the system — review the organizational structure, culture, politics, and procedures to identify the barriers to change that currently exist.
3. Assess the recipient — determine the needs, concerns, and feelings of individuals affected by the change to understand their perspectives.

4. Set intervention objectives — define the goals and desired outcomes that should take place during the change process.
5. Select learning strategies — combine involvement, demonstration, team building, and communication to create cohesiveness and commitment by individuals.
6. Resources — identify and obtain the resources necessary for the change ahead of time.

## Characteristics of Resilience

In his book, *Managing at the Speed of Change*, Daryl Conner details five basic characteristics of resilient people:

- Positive — sees life as challenging but filled with opportunities
- Focused — has a clear vision of what is to be accomplished
- Flexible — is adaptable when faced with uncertainty
- Organized — incorporates structure to help manage unclear situations
- Proactive — engages change instead of avoiding it

## Resilience Continuum — Opportunity Versus Danger

Sometimes, an individual needs to be more positive, focused, and flexible in response to immediate change demands. At other times, it may be more appropriate to resist the immediate change demands. Leaders increase their change management effectiveness as they gain personal awareness of the factors related to resistance and resilience.

The Type O/Type D (Opportunity/Danger) instrument allows individuals to assess how they react to change along a resilience continuum. Resilience is gauged in relation to the five characteristics: positive, focused, flexible, organized, and proactive. **Type D** people are "danger-oriented" in reaction to change. **Type O** people are "opportunity-oriented" in reaction to change. A brief profile of each type follows:

**Type D** people:

- View change as threat.
- Tend to lack vision and the ability to stay focused when stressed.
- Interpret life as logical and sequential.
- Feel insecure during times of transition and frequently act defensively.
- Tend to react rather than create.
- Usually blame or attack others for situations created by change.

**Type O** people:

- Approach change as a potential advantage.
- Have strong direction and vision to help them guide during transition periods.
- View life as a continuously changing set of variables.
- May feel disoriented during drastic change, but do not usually act defensively.
- Respond to change constructively and positively.
- Operate independently and self sufficiently, but seek the input, skills, and support of others around them.

Though most individuals tend to have some combination of Type O and Type D characteristics, the value of this assessment is to reflect upon those tendencies that may need improvement in response to change.

## Change as Self-renewal

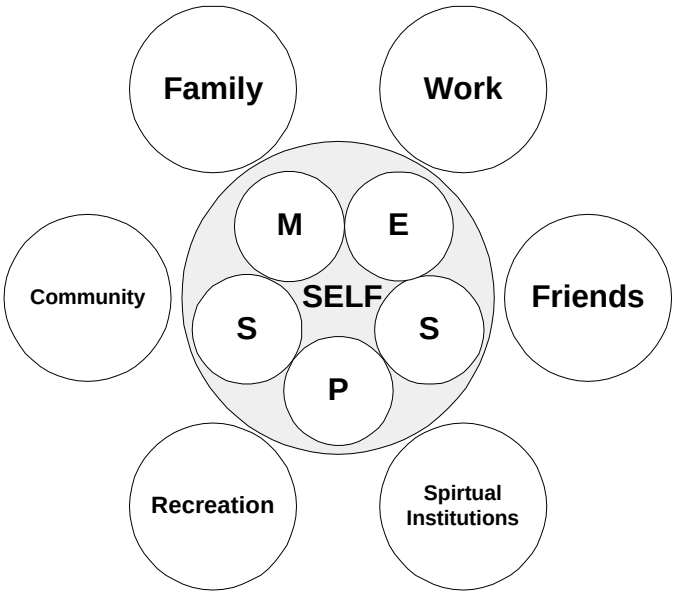
Growth means change, but change can be a threatening notion. In many cases, people view change as something external or as someone else's demands. However, personal change can be positive, a self-renewal and a personal means to continually move toward wholeness and well-being.

Stephen Covey's book *The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People* has personal change as its main theme. Habits 6 and 7, for example, are "Synergize" and "Sharpening the Saw." By sharpening the saw, Covey means self-renewal.

A large part of change is the process of arranging the personal spheres of self, responsibilities, and relationships in order to achieve balance and synergy. The competing demands upon a person's time, energy, and talent can be draining and cause many people to suffer "burn out." The key to avoiding "burn out" while enhancing effectiveness and success is to arrange the internal aspects of the self and the external demands in such a way that balance and synergy result.

The Life Spheres illustration that follows depicts both internal and external relationships that effect balance and synergy. The domains or dimensions that comprise the self include the mental, emotional, social, physical, and spiritual. When people balance these domains, they experience wholeness and increased well-being. The spheres around the outside of the self, depicted in the illustration, represent the primary spheres of life and relationships. These external spheres need to be balanced along with the internal spheres.

# Life Spheres




**Self:**
**M**ental
**E**motional
**S**ocial
**P**hysical
**S**piritual

Covey describes the "creative cooperation" that produces personal synergy when an individual seeks to balance all the personal domains of the self. *Synergy* is the energy that "catalyzes, unifies, and unleashes" the greatest of human potential. When synergy occurs "the whole is greater than the sum of its parts" (Covey, p.262).

Each person functions within a larger context of relationships. The life spheres represent the places and people that comprise the social patterns of our lives. Personal change involves examining the factors at work in our lives and making changes that increase effectiveness and personal health.

Individuals need a stable foundation upon which to build change. The problem for many people is that these spheres pull them in different directions, and there is a lack of continuity when spheres have no connection to others. Such discontinuity leads to what many identify as the fragmentation of modern society and relationships. Individuals often experience the following contrasts:

- Fragmentation versus integration — Fragmentation is the feeling of too few connections between the spheres of relationships.
- Discontinuity versus continuity — Discontinuity is the feeling of moving in many directions without clear purpose and focus.
- Anonymity versus appreciation — Anonymity is the feeling of isolation, a lack of appreciation by significant people.

Change under such conditions may be overwhelming because the necessary personal support systems may be too weak or non-existent.

As leaders examine the connections and continuity of their personal life spheres, the goal is to identify what constitutes renewal for them. Individuals need to take the time to arrange their internal and external support systems in order to build their personal resilience in order to cope with change — and to initiate it.

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